



Entangled Polymer Melts in Extensional Flow: Synthesis, Rheology, Neutron Scattering

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Entangled Polymer Melts in Extensional Flow:

Synthesis, Rheology,
Neutron Scattering

Andriy Dorokhin
PhD Thesis December 2017



 **DTU Nanotech**
Department of Micro- and Nanotechnology

Entangled Polymer Melts in Extensional Flow: Synthesis, Rheology, Neutron Scattering

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Kongens Lyngby 2018



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Preface

The thesis was prepared in fulfillment of the requirements for acquiring a Ph.D. degree. Its manuscript presents the results of the work that was carried out at the Department of Micro- and Nanotechnology (Technical University of Denmark), Niels Bohr Institute (University of Copenhagen), Danish Polymer Centre (Technical University of Denmark), Bragg Institute (Australian Nuclear Science and Technology Organisation) and Paul Scherrer Institute (Swiss Federal Institutes of Technology Domain).

The Ph.D. project was supervised by Prof. Kristoffer Almdal (Department of Micro- and Nanotechnology, main supervisor), Prof. Kell Mortensen (Niels Bohr Institute) and Prof. Ole Hassager (Danish Polymer Centre).

This study is a part of the joint project 'Entangled Polymer Melts in Extensional Flow' between DTU Nanotech, DTU Chemical Engineering and the Niels Bohr Institute at Copenhagen University which was supported by the Danish Council for Independent Research — Natural Sciences (Grant 0602 — 02179B). The research programme comprises experimental work in model polymer synthesis, extensional rheology, small-angle neutron scattering as well as fitting the data from the SANS scattering patterns.

Summary

This thesis contains 5 chapters and reprints in Appendices, combined of both published and unpublished materials.

The first chapter is an introduction to the goals, methods and problem identification of the project of the entangled polymer melts in extensional flow, which is aimed to shed some light on certain aspects of polymer physics. This became possible because of a valuable opportunity of collaboration of scientists, whose main research areas are polymer synthesis, rheology of complex fluids and small-angle neutron scattering.

Consequently, the second chapter describes the model polymer syntheses, made by living anionic polymerization. It contains the description of well-established, as well as new block copolymer syntheses.

The third chapter briefly touches the area of the extensional rheology of complex fluids and has the description of an innovative method, filament stretching rheometry, which can measure the extensional rheology of non-Newtonian fluids during a homogeneous uniaxial elongation, providing the results for the tensile stress and molecular conformations.

Forth, the fourth chapter delineates the area of SANS, provides the characteristics of the instruments from the different beamlines and depicts some issues that are significant and specific to the quenched polymer samples. It also contains the computational algorithms of the polymer structure factors and shows the way to procure essential parameters of the macromolecular conformations.

The conclusion, Chapter 5, briefly recapitulates the progress in the area of the project.

Dansk Resumé

Denne afhandling indeholder 5 kapitler og genoptrykt i Appendikser, både udgivet og ikke publiceret materiale.

Det første kapitel er en introduktion til formål, metoder og problemer identificeret i projektet, der omhandler komplekse polymersmelter i forlængelse flydning, i forsøg på at kaste lys over visse aspekter af polymerfysik. Dette blev muliggjort ved hjælp af et værdifuldt samarbejde mellem forskere, hvis vigtigste forskningsområder er polymersyntese, reologi af komplekse væsker og små-vinkel neutronspreddning.

Følgeligt beskriver andet kapitel model polymersynteser, udført ved levende anionisk polymerisation. Det indeholder beskrivelse af veletablerede, samt nye blokcopolymersynteser.

Det tredje kapitel berører kortvarigt forlængelses reologi af komplekse væsker og beskriver en innovativ metode, strakt tråd reometri, som kan måle reologi af ikke-Newtonske væsker under en homogen uniaksial forlængelse, der giver resultater for trækspændingen og molekylære konformationer.

Yderligere, det fjerde kapitel afgrænser området for SANS, samt indeholder de særlige kendetegn ved instrumenterne fra de forskellige beamlines og beskriver nogle spørgsmål, der er væsentlige og specifikke for bratkølete polymerprøver. Det også præsenterer de beregningsmæssige algoritmer for polymerstrukturene og viser en måde at bestemme væsentlige parametre for de makromolekylære konformationer på.

Konklusionen, Kapitel 5, opsummerer kort fremskridt inden for projektet.

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank my Ph.D. supervisors: Prof. Kristoffer Almdal for teaching me the basics of anionic polymerization, tactics and strategies of a good researcher and inspiration throughout these 3 exciting years, Prof. Kell Mortensen for introducing me to the area of small-angle neutron scattering and Prof. Ole Hassager for providing an insight on the concepts of extensional rheology of complex fluids.

I would further like to thank Prof. Jacob Kirkensgaard for the great help in both experimental and theoretical part of SANS, specifically for the part of implementing the 'Dangling Ends Model' into a Matlab code, as well as backing with finding bugs in programming code; Dr. Irakli Javakhishvili and Dr. Sergey Chernyy for the enlightening discussions in the field of polymer chemistry; Dr. Ludovica Hengeller and Dr. Qian Huang for enlightening me in some areas of polymer rheology and hands-on FSR training; all the lecturers from the '14th Oxford School on Neutron Scattering' and 'Applications of X-ray and Neutron Scattering in Biology, Chemistry and Physics' course, as well as Prof. Henrik Flyvbjerg, Prof. Bo Svensmark, Dr. Nikoline Juul Jensen, Prof. Charlotte Held Gotfredsen, Prof. Jens Øllgaard Duus, Prof. Andy Horsewell, Prof. Wolfgang Pantleon, Prof. Karen Pantleon and Prof. Masao Doi for their input into my education.

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Finally, I am gratefully thankful to my wife Oks-ksana Nezajchonovna Rækshukhena Tikho-BRæs-Khaøshaja for the proof-reading of the draft of this thesis.

List of Acronyms

<u>Acronym</u>	<u>Definition</u>
3BnBr	1,3,5-Tris(bromomethyl)benzene
ANSTO	Australian Nuclear Science and Technology Organization
AcOH	Acetic acid
AgTFA	Silver trifluoromethanesulfonate
ATRP	atom transfer radical polymerization
BHT	2,6-Di- <i>tert</i> -butyl-4-methyl-phenol
Bu ₂ Mg	Di- <i>n</i> -butylmagnesium
CCR	convective constraint release
CLF	contour length fluctuations
CR	constraint release
CRR	constraint release Rouse
DEM	'dangling ends' model
DPE	Diphenylethylene
DPEBr1	1,3-Bis(1-phenylvinyl)benzene
DPEBr3	1-(4-(3-Bromopropyl)phenyl)-1-phenylethylene
DRI	differential refractive index
DTD	dynamic tube dilation
DVB	Divynilbenzene
Dithranol	1,8-Dihydroxy-9(10H)-anthracenone
FSR	filament stretching rheometry/rheometer
GLaMM	Graham-Likhtman and Milner-McLeish Model
HCl	Hydrochloric acid
HPLC	High-performance liquid chromatography
iPrOH	Propan-2-ol
Irganox 1010	Pentaerythritol <i>tetrakis</i> [3-(3',5'-di- <i>tert</i> -butyl-4'-hydroxyphenyl)-propionate]
Irganox 1330	1,3,5-Trimethyl-2,4,6-tris(3,5-di- <i>tert</i> -butyl-4-hydroxybenzyl)benzene
ISO	International Organization for Standardization
KOH	Potassium hydroxide
LVE	linear viscoelasticity
MALDI ToF MS	matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization time-of-flight mass spectroscopy
MLD	Mead, Larson and Doi theory
MeOH	Methanol
NMP	nitroxy-mediated stable free-radical polymerization
P2VP	poly(2-vinyl pyridine)

<u>Acronym</u>	<u>Definition</u>
PB	polybutadiene
PDDPE	Para-double diphenylethylene /1,4-Bis(1-phenylethenyl)benzene
PI	polyisoprene
PP	chain primitive path
PRMA	substituted polymethacrylate
PS	polystyrene
PS- <i>d8</i>	perdeuterated polystyrene
PSD	deuterated polystyrene block
PSH	protonated polystyrene block
PSI	Paul Scherrer Institute
PSLi	polystyryllithium
RAFT	reversible addition–fragmentation chain transfer polymerization
RALLS	right angle laser light scattering
ROP	ring-opening polymerization
SANS	small-angle neutron scattering
SEC	size exclusion chromatography
sec-BuLi	sec-butyllithium
TCR	thermal constraint release
THF	Tetrahydrofuran
WEM	Warner-Edwards model

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1.1 Timeliness and Open Questions of this Work

Theoretical rheology is a discipline of great significance for the industrial polymer processing. It describes the viscoelastic behaviour of a complex fluid based on a macromolecular structure of a material [1]. The discipline leans on the theoretical framework of one-dimensional diffusion and the Tube Model concept established by the pioneering works of de Gennes, Doi and Edwards [2, 3]. Since then, a handful of significant improvements, based on the data from rheological experiments, have been suggested. The enhancements in linear response include: contour length fluctuations [4], thermal constraint release [5, 6] and longitudinal Rouse modes [7], which were incorporated into a comprehensive model by Likhtman and McLeish [7]. The nonlinear response was further developed by adding the processes of chain stretch [8, 9] and convective constraint release [10]. Onwards, Graham et al. [1] added the mechanisms for nonlinear mode to the Likhtman theory, and made a complementary nonlinear model, that is able to predict the variation in rheological response depending on the molecular weight, chemical composition and deformation geometry. Despite the success in understanding flow and diffusion in macromolecular ensembles there is evidence of inability to prognosticate the molecular processes and rheological properties outside a small deformation range, especially for the case of extensional flow in elongation [11]. On the other hand, the development and validation of a quantitative, microscopic theory that can resolve this obstacle depends crucially on the availability of experimental and simulation data for model systems [12]. This work aims at providing the needed experimental data on stress and macromolecular orientation measurements of model polymers and polymer melts systems during a controlled uniaxial extension. In more detail, we target model branched architectures since we would like to exclude reptation relaxation mechanism and push these systems into the non-linear regime. In such a manner it is possible to fill a missing data gap in the field of molecular rheology of complex fluids and broaden our understanding in the specific area of extensional flows. To achieve these goals the method of living anionic polymerization is utilized, forasmuch as it can offer a well-established way to produce a satisfactory amount of appropriate labeled, stable, narrowly polydispersed high molecular mass polymers with a targeted molecular architecture. The monomers suited for our research need to meet at least some of the certain requirements stated below:

- A monomer has to have a commercially available deuterated analogue, which relieves us from the necessity to synthesize the deuterated version of the monomer ourselves. The advantageous analogue has to be a perdeuterated one since it will give more contrast during SANS measurements;
- The price of a monomer and its deuterated analogue has to be reasonable;
- A final polymer made of a chosen monomer preferably has a relatively high glass transition temperature, slightly higher than a maximum temperature it can encounter after

the quenching procedure on FSR. Meeting this requirement allows easy handling of the final sample with no necessity to cool it down with liquid nitrogen or dry ice to save the macromolecular conformations after the quenching;

- A monomer and a resulting polymer have to be stable at a certain temperature range. The most critical part of this is that the resulting polymer must not have to degrade at a temperature around fifty degrees above the glass transition temperature, since it is the temperature to prestretch a sample on FSR;
- The chemistry of the polymerization should be well studied and practically feasible in our laboratory with as little byproducts and competitive reactions as possible;
- The reactivity of living linear chains has to be enough to make a POM-POM or star-coupling reactions with high yields to produce high molecular weight polymers (for a POM-POM polymer made of styrene the desired molecular weight for an arm is 20 kg/mol since it is a little bit higher than the entanglement molecular weight, minimum amount of arms is equal to four and the linker connecting the arm should be five times higher in molecular weight, which results in the final molecular weight of 180 kg/mol).

Keeping all those criteria in mind, the monomer for the study was chosen to be styrene, since it satisfies to some extent all the stated requirements. Polymers are uniaxially elongated at a controlled temperature and under inert atmosphere with an online feedback control plate motion with the use of a filament stretching rheometer at a constant elongation rate, and either quenched immediately or after the stress relaxation for a determined amount of time. These kinds of experiments give reproducible data on extensional viscosity of the systems scrutinized. The data is then being associated with structural studies by SANS, providing insight on to which extent the macromolecules were strained by the flow field. In such a manner, we provide novel essential data for developing a molecular model describing the behaviour of non-Newtonian fluids under uniaxial deformation at high strain rates.

1.2 General Background and Phenomenological State-of-the-art

1.2.1 General Polymer Description

Polymer rheology is aimed to provide theoretical understanding of the dynamics and mechanics of soft matter materials in order to meet the demands of the polymer producing market, as well as a diverse set of minor problems going far beyond, such as: chromosome dynamics, cytoskeleton mechanics and protein folding [13]. Rheology involves measurements in controlled flow situations gaining information about viscosity and elasticity of complex fluids and providing crucial information on the behavior of polymeric liquids [14].

In order to describe polymers and their deformations a well-established conceptual construct comprising of conventional ideas and ratiocinations has to be declared first.

A polymer (macromolecule) is a molecule composed of repeated subunits. A polymer in equilibrium tends to take on random walk coil configuration with step size of b_K consisting of N_K random steps (Kuhn steps).

The extended polymer length (also called ‘contour length’) is described by the equation:

$$L = N_K b_K, \quad (1.1)$$

and the root mean square distance between the macromolecule ends is then equal to

$$R = \langle R^2 \rangle_0^{0.5} = N_K^{0.5} b_K \quad (1.2)$$

A macromolecule can be maximum stretched up to [15]:

$$\lambda_{\max} \equiv L/\sqrt{\langle R^2 \rangle_0} = \sqrt{N_K} \quad (1.3)$$

1.2.1.1 Entanglement

Entanglement (topological constraint) may be introduced as a phenomenological entity designated for long-lived binary dynamic interactions between pairs of polymer chains [16]. Even though the definition of entanglement as well as its precise nature are not completely understood or agreed upon until now [15], theories that exploit ideas of effects of entanglements make predictions about polymer rheology closer to experimental data. For example, in cases of concentrated solutions or melts, the use of mathematical apparatus of entanglements gives the ability to correctly describe intermediate time rubbery plateau of the dynamic shear modulus in the liquid state, which is analogous to crosslinked rubbers [13]. The value of the entanglement molecular weight in a polymer, M_e , is found experimentally: from plateau modulus, relating M_e to chain dimensions [17] or to packing length and density [18]:

$$M_e = 1.98 N_A \rho l_p^3, \quad (1.4)$$

with 1.98 being the coefficient of proportionality, which is independent of polymer type and temperature [19]. This experimentally found coefficient holds for a variety of flexible polymers, such as: polydienes, styrenes, acrylics and polymeric sulfurs [20–24].

The plateau modulus is defined [15] as $M_e \equiv \rho RT/G_N^0$, which means that

$$G_N^0 = \frac{kT}{1.98 l_p^3} \quad (1.5)$$

where k is Boltzmann's constant, l_p , packing length (which is proportional to the ratio of the cross-sectional area to the length of each Kuhn segment [25]), is defined as

$$l_p = \frac{M}{r_g^2 \rho N_A} \quad (1.6)$$

with r_g being a radius of gyration, N_A — Avogadro constant, ρ — polymer density.

Volume per entanglement, V_e , is the volume that occupies a macromolecule with the molecular weight of M_e :

$$V_e = \frac{M_e}{\rho N_A} \quad (1.7)$$

and introducing M_e from Eq. 1.4 it gives:

$$V_e = 1.98 l_p^3 \quad (1.8)$$

The number of entanglements per chain Z determines the linear response of a polymer and is found as the ratio of Kuhn segments in the chain N over Kuhn segments per entanglement segment N_e [26]:

$$Z = \frac{N}{N_e} = \frac{M_w}{M_e}, \quad (1.9)$$

For the complete image, M_w and M_e are given, which are the molar masses of the chain and entanglement, respectively.

The number of Kuhn segments per entanglement N_e determines to some extent nonlinear flow characteristics providing an estimate of the rigidity of entanglement segment. In a polymer melt N_e is preconditioned by the chemistry of a polymer, while adding a solvent will increase the space between entanglements simultaneously increasing the number of Kuhn segments per entanglement ($N_e(\phi)$) [26]:

$$N_e(\phi) = N_e(1)\phi^{-\alpha}, \quad (1.10)$$

with ϕ being polymer concentration, $N_e(1)$ — the number of Kuhn segments per entanglement segment for the undiluted system and α being the dilution exponent [26].

Even though a detailed description of the Tube Model is given in the following subsections, important variables introduced there are used universally and need to be declared here. A virtual tube consisting of the surrounding molecules restricting motions of chains has a diameter d_t (also called an average transverse dynamic localization length) defined by:

$$\frac{d_t^2}{M_e} = \frac{R^2}{M}, \quad (1.11)$$

with M being overall molar mass and R^2 — end-to-end vector, may be more conveniently used as:

$$d_t = l_p n_t / 6 = n_t^{1/3} V_e^{1/3} \quad (1.12)$$

with n_t being the number of Kuhn segments per M_e and l_p being obtained from SANS measurements of chain dimensions [24, 27]. Tube diameter is a fundamental length scale for a macromolecule depending only on polymer chemistry, concentration and amount of monomeric units [13] which is used in Tube Model [Sec. 1.2.3] to predict the large-scale behavior of chains in a polymer melt [28].

Another valuable variable is critical molecular weight, M_c , after which the zero-shear viscosity starts having power law function depending on M . This value is fitted empirically [25]:

$$M_c = M_e [l_p^* / l_p]^{0.65} \quad (1.13)$$

with l_p^* value of approximately 6 nm. M_c ticks the crossover from unentangled polymer behavior (called ‘regime 1’) to entangled regimes (regime 2 — reptation combined with other processes like ‘contour length fluctuations’ and ‘constraint release’; regime 3 — pure reptation) [28]. Above the critical molecular weight in a melt or higher than the entanglement concentration in solution, the Brownian motion of a polymer chain happens in less than three-dimensional space [29], which will be more thoroughly described within the Tube Model subsection.

1.2.2 Rouse Model

Originally proposed to describe the macromolecular dynamics in dilute solutions, the Rouse model [30] or its later successor, the Zimm model [31], which includes hydrodynamic interactions, correctly describes dynamics of short polymer chains in melts and solutions. For example, macromolecules shorter than the entanglement length n_e show the self-diffusion constant and viscosity for a melt of chains of length n proportional to n^{-1} and n respectively, which was predicted by the Rouse model [32]. The Rouse model may predict the dynamics in concentrated solutions in case of the $M_w < M_e$, since hydrodynamic interactions are screened

out by other molecules [33], or even the dynamics at intermediate time and length scales, while the dynamics at longer scales is affected by the temporary topological constraints [34].

In the Rouse model, a polymer chain is represented as a set of beads with defined coordinates R_i and friction coefficient ξ_0 . The beads are interconnected using harmonic springs with constant $k = \frac{3k_B T}{b^2}$, where b^2 is the mean-squared length of each bond. For a bead i the equation of motion is [35]:

$$\xi_0 \frac{dR_i}{dt} = \frac{3k_B T}{b^2} (R_{i+1} + R_{i-1} - 2R_i) + f_i(t), \quad (1.14)$$

with $\langle f_i(t) \rangle = 0$ and $\langle f_i(t) f_j(t') \rangle = 2k_B T \xi_0 \delta_{ij} \delta(t - t')$.

Despite its success, the Rouse model is not a universal answer to the subject of polymer dynamics of unentangled chains, since it breaks down in cases when the length scale probed by a mode is too short to allow for Gaussian distributed intramolecular distances on that scale [36], when a length scale is affected by local excluded volume interactions and chain stiffness [34], or at temperatures close to the glass transition, where the relaxation time of local segments has stronger temperature dependence than that of Rouse normal modes [33].

Some improvements were introduced to the Rouse model in order to account for the increase in relaxation time in the viscoelastic response of an unentangled polymer melt undergoing a glass transition by fitting a temperature dependent monomer friction coefficient in the form of a Vogel-Fulcher-Tammann law [36]:

$$\zeta(T) = \zeta_\infty \exp \left[\frac{E}{T - T_0} \right], \quad (1.15)$$

with T_0 being the extrapolated temperature of divergence and ζ being monomer friction coefficient.

Summarizing, the Rouse model is an isotropic oversimplification that does not correctly describe macromolecular behavior because of the effects of hydrodynamics in solutions, entanglements in long chain liquids and nonlocal viscoelastic effects near the glass transition temperature [13]. This became motivation behind an enhanced segment-scale, self-consistent, force-based theory model with intermolecular force memory function matrix which captures arrested segmental correlations that are nonlocal in separation along a tagged chain [13].

1.2.3 Tube Model

Originally presented by de Gennes [2] and developed further by Doi and Edwards [3], the Tube Model simplifies interpenetrations of chains and entanglements effects that restrict their motion into a tube-like region around the chain [37].

Having two ends, a linear chain (chain primitive path, PP) undergoes Rouse dynamics inside the tube and may curvilinearly diffuse forwards and backwards along the axis of this tube. This quasi-1D stochastic motion, which is responsible for chain diffusion as well as flow and long-time relaxation was named reptation [13].

The phenomenon of reptation has been lately evidenced directly with the use of fluorescence microscopy, acknowledging the relaxation mechanism without transversal movements [38].

The key parameter, that is introduced in tube theory is a tube diameter or, rather, the ratio of the tube diameter to the global polymer size [16]. In entangled polymer melts the number of monomers along the chain between neighboring entanglements N_e and a microscopic

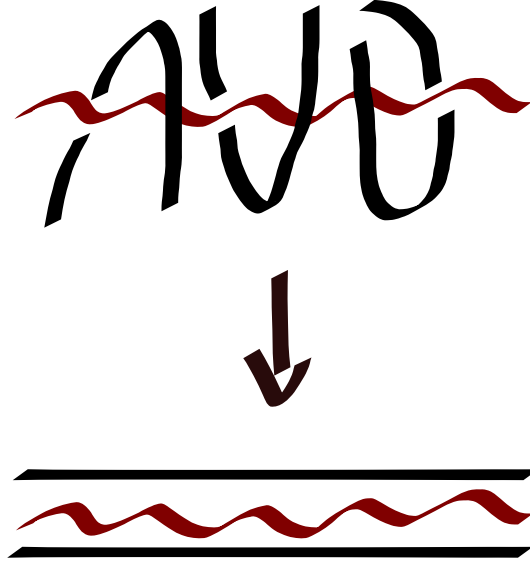


Figure 1.1: The concept of the tube: chain interpenetrations (black color, top) make a so-called ‘tube’ (black color, bottom) around a polymer chain (dark red).

length scale for one monomer a are introduced to calculate the tube diameter [39]:

$$d_t = aN_e^{0.5} \quad (1.16)$$

It was shown that in solutions the tube diameter is decreasing with increasing concentration [38]. Even though present phenomenological theories [40, 41] are exploiting the idea of non-deformable, non-intrinsically dynamical tubes with the exception of deformations following the macroscopic affine strain, the concept of tubes changing their diameter may help to interpret some macroscopic experiments [16].

In case of long chains the process of chain stretching, occurring on the time scale of τ_R , may be decoupled from the process of chain orientation, occurring on the time scale of τ_d . This means that in case of external deformation rate $\dot{\gamma}$ higher τ_d^{-1} and lower than τ_R^{-1} the Tube Model mostly predicts chain orientation and not as much chain stretching during the shear deformation, leading to such deductions as: the radius of gyration should increase monotonically during startup shear, the contour length of the PP and stress for step shear should decline on time scales of τ_R and the chain alignment in the tube should result in stress overshoot [37].

The improved Tube Model [Sec. 1.2.4] predicts the scaling of zero-shear viscosity η_0 depending on the M_w of the chain [28]:

- providing expected viscosity proportional to M_w in case of chain molecular weight less than critical molecular weight;
- proportional to the M_w^3 in case of chain molecular weight greater than the reptation molecular weight M_r ;
- proportional to $M_w^{3.4}$ if the molecular weight of a chain is in between of the critical molecular weight, M_c , and M_r for monodisperse homopolymer melts with linear architecture.

The state-of-the-art expression for the relaxation modulus also accounts for the following supplementary mechanisms [42]:

- First term — constraint release term;
- Second term — longitudinal relaxation of segments;
- Third term — fast Rouse relaxation of segments within the tube.

$$G(t) = G_e \left[\frac{4}{5} \mu(t) R(t) + \frac{1}{5Z} \sum_{p=1}^{Z-1} \exp\left(-\frac{p^2 t}{\tau_R}\right) + \frac{1}{Z} \sum_{p=Z}^N \exp\left(-\frac{2p^2 t}{\tau_R}\right) \right], \quad (1.17)$$

with $G_e = \rho RT/M_e$ being the plateau modulus, $\mu(t)$ — single chain relaxation function, $R(t)$ — relaxation function due to constraint release, $\tau_R = \tau_e Z^2$ — the Rouse time of a chain in a tube and p denoting a relaxation mode.

A significant part of this work was devoted to the synthesis and rheo-SANS characterization of star polymers, which show different rheological response, particularly, a logarithmically decaying plateau for $G(t)$. Since on account of the branching point a polymer can not reptate, the relaxation of star polymers within the Tube Model is described with the help of thermal constraint release and arm retraction, yielding in an expression for stars zero-shear viscosity [42]:

$$\eta_0 \approx G(\tau_{arm}) \tau_{arm} \sim \left(\frac{M_{arm}}{M_e} \right)^{1.5} \exp\left(\frac{\gamma'}{2} \frac{M_{arm}}{M_e} \right), \quad (1.18)$$

with γ' being a constant set to 3/4.

1.2.3.1 Relaxation Times

Time constants describe polymer motion after chain stretch:

- τ_e (entanglement time) points at the empirical crossover from the short length scale relaxation to the regime that is affected by topological constraints, which can also be defined as the relaxation time of the strand between two entanglements [43];
- τ_R (Rouse relaxation time) is the longest chain relaxation time for a given chain length and reptation time;
- τ_d (reptation time) is the time it takes a chain to diffuse out of its original tube [44].

1.2.3.2 Tube Model Criticism

The Tube Model describes polymer dynamics problems of flow and equilibria properties of multiple chains in simplistic and mathematically convenient terms, simplifying a many-body problem into a single chain problem. Such reduction, as well as assumptions of nondeformability of the tube, lower the power of the theory to describe experimental data [45]. Selected studies [46–48] have shown that a tube is dynamic in its nature and some reconsiderations have to be made in this model.

The Tube Model also does not include such essential processing parameters as temperature, concentration, density and degree of semiflexibility in its core approximating these

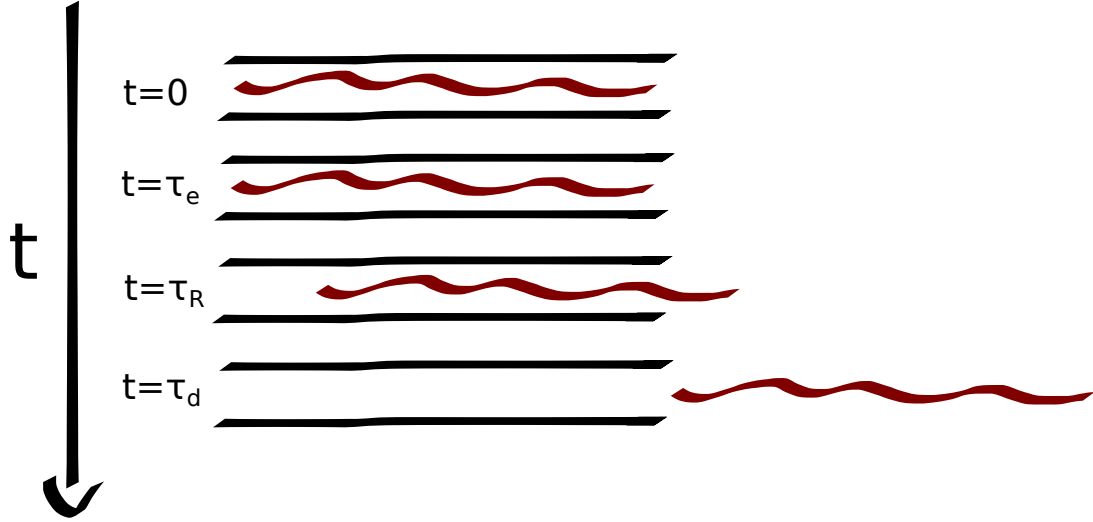


Figure 1.2: Polymer motion with respect to the relaxation times: τ_e being the entanglement time, τ_R — Rouse relaxation time and τ_d — reptation time.

correlations into a ‘confining tube’, while other theories [49, 50] include the dynamics of entanglements as interacting chains.

At this point, a heterogeneous set of equations (Rouse and reptation models) is employed to depict polymer rheology for unentangled and entangled polymers, while neither the thermodynamics nor the structural properties of polymers show any dynamics discontinuity, indicating the situation of present microscopic formalism that does not properly represent the polymer dynamics [51].

1.2.4 Tube Model enhancements in linear response

1.2.4.1 Contour Length Fluctuations

The Tube Model predictions [52] were contradicting experimental data [53, 54], so a number of supplements were introduced as the model enhancements to quantitatively address observed aspects in properties of linear entangled macromolecules [55].

In order to correctly describe linear viscoelasticity (LVE), particularly the dependence of M (above M_e) on zero shear viscosity with the scale of $(M/M_e)^{3.4}$ instead of predicted $(M/M_e)^3$ [56] the concept of contour length fluctuations (‘the fluctuation-driven stretching and contractions of the chain along the tube’, ‘CLF’) was proposed [52]:

$$\eta_0(M) = 9.6\eta_0(M_c)(M/M_c)^3[1 - 1.04(M_c/M)^{0.5}]^3, (M \gtrsim 10M_c,) \quad (1.19)$$

with $M_c = 2M_e$, which is numerically close to the empirical power law, $\eta_0(M) = \eta_0(M_c)(M/M_c)^{3.4}$ for $10M_c \lesssim M \lesssim 100M_c$.

The message of CLF is that at the point of chain contraction and stretching within the tube, the orientation of the ends of the tube is ‘forgotten’ and stress associated with the alignment of those parts of the tube is already relaxed [57].

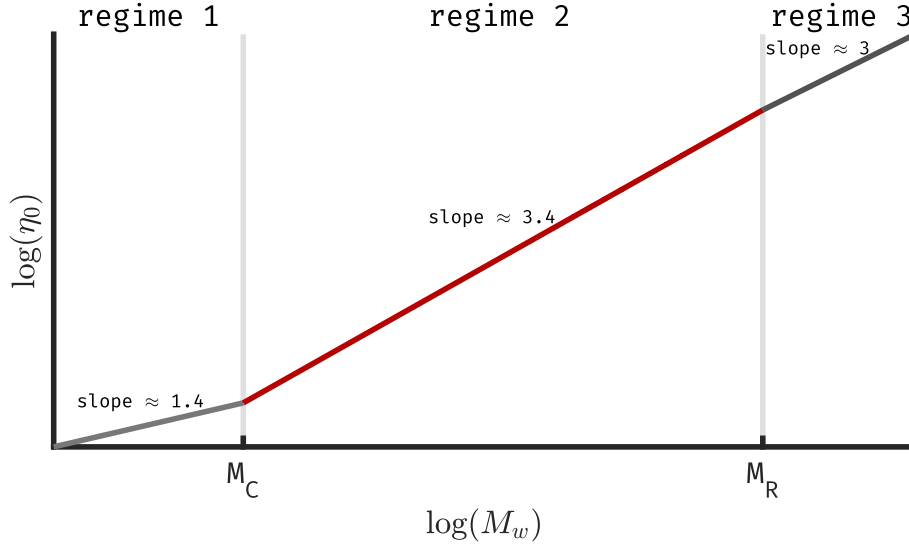


Figure 1.3: Expected zero shear viscosity profiles for polymer solutions at different molecular weights. M_c and M_r represent the critical and reptation molecular weights respectively.

It is worth noticing that CLF mechanism of stress relaxation is significant only for a certain chain length and beyond a limit of M_r , the effect fades away leaving pure reptation as the only way for stress relaxation [28].

1.2.4.2 Thermal Constraint Release

Tube reorganization by the way of thermal constraint release (CR) was originally introduced to describe polydispersity effects [42, 58]. At this point, among different theories behind the CR model, the release of constraints on a test chain, as other chains retract away from their environment, providing effective widening of the tube following a step strain is widely accepted because of good agreement between the theory and experiments [59]. The CR effects are treated supposing that relaxed segments work as a solvent for strained chains, that reduces the number of entanglements in the system by a factor of $(1 - s)$ resulting in a gradual dilation of the confining tube. This relaxation mechanism, ‘dynamic tube dilation’ (DTD), reasonably predicts the stress relaxation function for monodisperse linear and symmetric polymer stars, but not the dielectric or arm end-to-end vector relaxation [60]. A possible explanation of these deficiencies could be that a tube dilation process occurs faster than the transverse Rouse motion of the arm when the dangling end retracts [60]. In order to account for these errors, a multichain ‘slip-link’ model was proposed, which assumes entanglements as topological constraints coming from pairs of neighboring chains while the relaxation in terminal regime is governed by the creation of entanglements between the branch point and the inmost entanglement is pushing the original entanglements towards the arm ends allowing them to vanish by shallow arm retractions [60].

1.2.4.3 Longitudinal Relaxation of Segments

Another significant contribution to stress relaxation at short times, the longitudinal relaxation modes, may elucidate the 4/5 factor in the plateau modulus expression $G_N^0 = (4/5)\rho RT/M_e$ in the frequency region of the minimum of the loss modulus G'' [58].

The factor is taken from the Doi-Edwards theory prediction, where it shows that the plateau modulus has to be 4/5 of the rubber modulus, with 1/5 of the stress being stored in the tubes and relaxed after deformation by longitudinal motion along the tube [7].

1.2.5 Tube Model enhancements in nonlinear response

The original Tube Model is a constantly developing theory, aiming to explain such experimental phenomena in nonlinear polymer melt/solution deformation, as [15]:

- Shear thinning (nonlinear flow rate/stress/pressure drop, shear banding, wall slip);
- Normal stress differences in shear (rod climbing, edge fracture in torsional shearing flow, elastic instabilities);
- Extensional thickening (tubeless siphon flow, turbulent drag reduction);
- Nonlinear memory of the deformation history (large elastic recoil, extrudate swelling, fluid bouncing).

To account for some of these phenomena, such mechanisms as convective constraint release (CCR) and chain stretch were introduced to the description of entangled polymers behavior in nonlinear flow [55].

1.2.5.1 Convective Constraint Release

In strong flows regimes (e.g. $\dot{\gamma}_0 \tau_d \gg 1$), the relative chain motion removes entanglements allowing faster relaxation. This phenomenon was named convective constraint release (CCR) and included to the Doi-Edwards model, making shear stress predictions approach a plateau at higher shear rates which agrees better with experimental observations [45]. The mechanism was initially developed to attenuate predicted excessive shear thinning leading to an unstable flow curve [58]. The release of topological constraints is believed to originate from the continual retraction of the chain contour length, that was generated by a flow. While being stretched, entangled chains are also relaxing to equilibrium by retracting along their tubes, making steady flow a superposition of continuous stretch and relaxation. Therefore the topological constraints are relaxed together with chains at a certain rate. This mechanism needs anisotropic chain conformations to operate, thus emerging in strain rate at second order [61]. Also, the original tube theory mismatch in ratio $-\Psi_2/\Psi_1$ (Ψ_1 and Ψ_2 being the first and second normal stress differences) in the slow shear rate regime was also corrected with a new strain measure $\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{C}^{-0.5}/\text{tr}(\mathbf{C}^{-0.5})$ instead of tensor $\mathbf{Q} = \langle \mathbf{u}\mathbf{u} \rangle$ in the original theory [45].

1.2.5.2 Constraint Release Rouse

Constraint release motion may also have a different microscopic mechanism laying in hopping motion of the tube on the time scale of the frequency of constraint release events, where the tube undergoes Rouse motion mediated by constraint release, scaling as the inverse constraint release rate times n^2 , with n being the number of steps of PP, $n = Nb^2/l_d^2 = 5/4N/N_e$, N — chain length and b — chain Kuhn segment [61].

1.2.5.3 Chain Stretch

The stretched chain accelerates reptation proportional to the chain length because a monomer diffuses longer to relax stress in a stretched (longer) chain. To account for this relaxation mechanism, the displacement because of reptation is reduced by $Z/Z^*(t)$, with $Z^*(t)$ being the number of tube segments of stretched chain, giving a reptation term [41]:

$$\mathbf{R}(s, t + \Delta t) = \mathbf{R} \left(s + \frac{Z}{Z^*(t)} \Delta \xi(t), t \right) \quad (1.20)$$

with $R(s, t)$ being the space curve denoting the position vector of tube segment s at time t and with $Z^*(t)$ being the instantaneous number of entanglements defined as:

$$Z^*(t) = \int_0^Z \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{R}'(s) \cdot \mathbf{R}'(s)/a^2 \rangle} ds = \frac{1}{a} \int_0^Z \sqrt{Tr \mathbf{f}(s, s)} ds, \quad (1.21)$$

assuming that

$$\langle \sqrt{\mathbf{R}'(s) \cdot \mathbf{R}'(s)} \rangle \approx \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{R}'(s) \cdot \mathbf{R}'(s) \rangle} \quad (1.22)$$

1.2.6 GLaMM Model

GLaMM (Graham-Likhtman and Milner-McLeish) Model [41, 62] is the most up-to-date mesoscopic model [63], which implements the relaxation mechanisms of reptation, CLF, CR (thermal and convective [10, 64]) and chain retraction at the length scale of the tube diameter [65], providing a microscopically derived stochastic equation for the macromolecular dynamics of a chain in its mean field tube [66]. It features the change of the ensemble-averaged conformational correlation between the segments of the primitive path and its neighbors, while previous works [67, 68] still handle the segments as uncorrelated [69]. Also, in contrast to MLD theory [67], in the GLaMM Model CR is being implemented as a completely distinct relaxation mechanism — local hops of the tube — which arises from lateral hops of the tube on the length scale of the tube diameter leading to Rouse-like motion of the tube itself [65]. Mathematically the GLaMM Model is described as the sum of convention:

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial t} = \cdot \mathbf{f} + \mathbf{f} \cdot T \quad (1.23)$$

CLF and reptation:

$$\frac{1}{3\pi^2\tau_e} \frac{a}{\sqrt{Tr \mathbf{f}(s_{\min}, s_{\min})}} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial s} + \frac{\partial}{\partial s'} \right) \left(\frac{a D_{CLF}(s, s')}{\sqrt{Tr \mathbf{f}(s_{\min}, s_{\min})}} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial s} + \frac{\partial}{\partial s'} \right) \mathbf{f} \right) \quad (1.24)$$

CR:

$$\frac{3va}{2} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial s} \left(\frac{a}{\sqrt{Tr \mathbf{f}(s, s)}} \frac{\partial}{\partial s} (\mathbf{f} - \mathbf{f}^{eq}) \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial s'} \left(\frac{a}{\sqrt{Tr \mathbf{f}(s', s')}} \frac{\partial}{\partial s'} (\mathbf{f} - \mathbf{f}^{eq}) \right) \right] \quad (1.25)$$

Retraction:

$$\frac{\mathcal{R}_s}{2\pi^2\tau_e} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial s} \left(\mathbf{f} \frac{\partial}{\partial s} \ln[Tr \mathbf{f}(s, s)] \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial s'} \left(\mathbf{f} \frac{\partial}{\partial s'} \ln[Tr \mathbf{f}(s', s')] \right) \right]. \quad (1.26)$$

With equilibrium configuration being:

$$\mathbf{f}^{eq}(s, s') = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{3} \mathbf{I} & \text{for } |s - s'| < 1/2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (1.27)$$

Degree of entanglement being:

$$Z^*(t) = \frac{1}{a} \int_0^Z \sqrt{\text{Trf}(s, s)} ds \quad (1.28)$$

CLF diffusion being:

$$D_{CLF}(s, s') = \begin{cases} \frac{\alpha_d^2}{s_{\min}^2} & s_{\min} < \alpha_d \sqrt{Z} \\ 1/Z & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (1.29)$$

$$s_{\min} = \min(s, s'), Z - s, Z - s', \alpha_d = 1.15 \quad (1.30)$$

Constraint release rate being:

$$\nu = c_v \left(\lambda + \frac{1}{3\beta_{rcr}(Z, c_v)Z^*(t)Z^2\tau_e} \right) \quad (1.31)$$

Retraction rate being:

$$\lambda = -\frac{\mathcal{R}_s}{2aZ^*(t)\pi^2\tau_e} \int_0^Z \frac{1}{\sqrt{\text{Trf}(s, s)}} \frac{\partial}{\partial s} \left[\text{Trf}(s, s') \frac{\partial}{\partial s} \ln[\text{Trf}(s, s)] \right]_{s'=s} ds \quad (1.32)$$

Stress being:

$$= \frac{12G_e}{5Z} \int_0^Z \mathbf{f}(s, s) ds + \frac{G_e}{Z} \int_{-\inf}^t \sum_{p=Z}^N \exp\left(-\frac{2p^2(t-t')}{Z^2\tau_e}\right) [(t') + (t')^T] dt' \quad (1.33)$$

The GLaMM Model can reliably predict the stresses [41, 62, 70] and neutron scattering patterns [71–73] of monodisperse linear polymer melts under both strong and weak flows [74]. Also, apart from being able to compute the tube configuration and stress tensor for an arbitrary homogeneous non-linear deformation [75], the GLaMM Model has been shown to predict the start-up flow adequately [76]. On the other hand, a recent critique [77] of the model shows that even though it captures transient shear viscosity rather well, it fails completely for the case of elongational flow showing infinite viscosity, predicting strain hardening for high elongational rates and high strains, while experimental data shows a steady state.

1.2.7 Future Research in the Area of Polymer Rheology

Despite the great success in the area of polymer rheology, several open questions regarding the experimentally observed phenomena of arrested wall slip [78], metastable shear banding [79–81], yielding in start-up extensional flow [82], as well as quantification of tumbling, orientation and stretching transition [83–85] still require enhancements in the present or new theories to describe [63, 76].

CHAPTER 2

Synthesis and the Molecular Mass Determination

2.1 Synthetic Pathways to the Star and POM-POM Polymers

The introduction to the targeted types of macromolecules for this project was given in the review part of this thesis. This section will focus on the available synthetic approaches to the needed polymers namely with the star and double star (H-shaped, super-H-shaped/POM-POM) architectures since these types of molecular architecture prevent reptation relaxation mechanism after a strain.

According to Zhao [86], star polymers can be produced by:

- ‘Core first’ approach, employing the multifunctional core synthesis as the first step with further arm growth usually via vinyl monomer polymerization;
- ‘Arm first’ approach, when a living or functionalized linear polymer is produced first with further linking reactions;
- ‘In-out’ approach, when successive arms are grown from multiple initiating sites in a core via different polymerization techniques.

Polymer arms in the ‘arm first’ approach can be made using ATRP [87–90], NMP [91, 92], RAFT [93–96] and ROP [97] polymerization techniques [86], and assembled into a star with the help of specific coupling agents, click-reactions [98–100], hydrosilylation [87, 101, 102], naphthalene chemistry [103] and ruthenium (III) complexes [104], but this section will focus solely on the star polymer synthesis made by the means of the living anionic polymerization technique.

The use of anionic polymerization (for the mentioned synthetic pathways) is governed mainly by high reactivities of the living anionic species, ability to produce high molecular weight polymers and low polydispersity of the starting building blocks for the stars — linear arms. The arm can be coupled to the final stars employing homopolymerizable, non-homopolymerizable or multifunctional linking agents, such as divinylbenzene (DVB), *para*-double diphenylethylene (PDDPE) or tetrachlorosilane respectively. Each method has its benefits and implications which will be discussed in the corresponding subsection below.

2.1.1 Divinylbenzene

The first star polymer synthesis employing DVB was done by Decker [105]. Since this method does not allow to precisely control the amount of arms due to the similar reactivity of the two vinyl groups, the product in their case was a mixture of polystyrene stars with the range of arms from 6 to 15. The remaining drawbacks of the method include the fact that there is a

chance of network/loop formation in case of intra-/intermolecular reactions of the polyfunctional living species and the fact that the number of arms depends on the molecular weight of the linear block and the molar ratio of the coupling agent to the living species. All these implications limit the amount of possible polymer architectures to the range of those that are not suitable for the purposes of this research.

2.1.2 PDDPE

Despite the fact that PDDPE (1,4-bis(1-phenylethenyl)benzene) also has two double bonds as DVB, the phenylethylene double bonds cannot undergo polymerization due to steric hindrance, allowing to couple linear chains to produce a macroinitiator which is capable of continued addition of monomer offering a way for both symmetric and non-symmetric stars. It was found by Yamagishi [106] that the rate constants of the addition reactions to the two reactive sites differ in a factor of 13. This feature also allows to produce so-called μ -star polymers, where different arms in a star are made of different monomers. Not only the rate constants of the addition reactions, but also the two rate constants of initiation differ, possibly giving a bimodal distribution of polymers, so it should be noted that often certain polar compounds are used to alter the reactivity of those two sites, which have to be taken into account in case of certain polymer syntheses (for example, in case of polydienes).

2.1.3 Chlorosilanes

The first successful attempt to synthesize star polymers employing chlorosilanes was made in 1962 [107]. In this research Morton used tetrachlorosilane as the linking agent to produce a mixture of 3- and 4-arm polystyrene stars. The inability to convert all the 3-arm stars to 4-arm ones even with a large excess of living anions is attributed to the steric hindrance at the silicon atom and decrease in reactivity with the increase of molecular weight of polymers. In more detail, this issue is described in Appendix A. Since then, a number of papers has been published describing the star synthesis with the use of other chlorosilanes, such as 1,2-Bis(trichlorosilyl)ethane [108], Hexadecachlorosilane [109] and Tetrahexicontachlorosilane [110].

2.1.4 Chloro- and Bromomethylbenzene Derivatives

Chloro- and Bromomethylbenzene derivatives are now used as the star coupling agents mostly for living anions of polar nature [111], but the first star synthesis employing Tri(chloromethyl)benzene was made to produce 3-arm polystyrene stars [112]. The method is well suited for block copolymers, as has been shown by Mayer [113] for the case of *block-PI-block-PS* and *block-PS-block-PI-block-PS* 4-arm stars with the use of 1,2,4,5-Tetra-(chloromethyl)benzene, however has a shortcoming expressed in the lithium-halogen exchange side reaction that can be suppressed in case of anionic polymerization done in polar solvents at -78°C with potassium counter ions [111].

2.1.5 Other Coupling Agents

It has been documented that star polymers can be made employing such terminators as Hexachlorocyclotriphosphazene [114, 115], 2,4,6-Triallyloxy-1,3,5-triazine [116], 1,1,4,4-tetraphenyl--1,4-bis(diallyloxytriazine)butane [117], tin tetrachloride [118], and phosphorus trichloride [119].

Although the typical shortcoming of these coupling agents is deemed to be the inability to extent star functionality behind six arms, those synthetic approaches has not been considered by our group since there is no data on star core stability of such polymers at elevated temperatures to the best of our knowledge.

2.1.6 Iterative Methodology Coupling Agents

Iterative methodology concept that was developed by the Hirao group, aims to overcome the typical drawback of star synthesis procedures allowing to produce polymers pushing the limit of arms to unknown. The methodology offers two consecutive synthetic steps: the first being arm introduction, when a two-functional coupling agent is added to living anions and the second — the reintroduction of the same reaction site. In such a manner arms of different chemical nature can be introduced to a polymer and this subsequence can be repeated with no predicted limit [120]. The methodology offers two synthetic designs. The first employs diphenylethylene and 1,3-butadiene reactive sites to be reintroduced with a halogen being the other functionality. This approach allows star polymer synthesis of a highly reactive anionic species, such as PS, PB and P2VP since they are reactive enough to react with DPE and/or 1,3-butadiene sites. The typical coupling agents for DPE-based synthetic approaches are:

- 1-(4-(3-Bromopropyl)phenyl)-1-phenylethylene (DPEBr3) [121];
- 1,3-Bis(1-phenylethenyl)benzene [122];
- 1,1-Bis(3-(1-phenylethenyl)phenyl)ethylene [123];
- 3,5-Bis(3-(4-(1-phenylethenyl)phenyl)propoxy)benzyl bromide [124].

6-Bromo-3-methylene-1-hexene [125, 126] — the linking agent introducing 1,3-butadienyl reactive site can be used when the forthcoming oxidation or Diels-Alder reactions are followed to transform the functional group into an epoxide or acid anhydride functions.

The second generation of iterative methodology coupling agents consists of compounds bearing such groups as:

- α -Phenylacrylate [127, 128];
- 2-Tetrahydropyranyl ether [129];
- 1,3-Dioxolane [130].

that are reintroduced upon Trimethylsilyl and tert-Butyldimethylsilyl ether hydroxyl protection cleavage, that makes a new reaction site, giving a possibility to use most of the polymers (PS, PB, PI, P2VP, PRMA etc.) within this synthetic star polymer concept.

Finally, this methodology also offers the ability to combine star polymer synthesis by the means of anionic polymerization with other polymer synthesis methods, like 'click' reactions, employing, for example, star polymers with aminogroups in the core [131].

2.2 Preparation to Syntheses

2.2.1 Glassware

Before syntheses, all the glassware was cleaned in an iPrOH/KOH 'base-bath' and washed with 1*N* HCl to protonate any possible potassium silanolates, that could favor 1,2-addition of butadiene during the polymerization in cyclohexane. Henceforth, the glassware was 'baked' in

an oven at the temperature of approximately 570°C for two hours in order to remove tensions in the glass preventing a breakage under an increased pressure environment and with the aim of condensing all surface silanols that are acidic enough to terminate the living anionic polymerization. Subsequently, the glassware was allowed to slowly cool down, assembled and 'baked' at 250°C and 10^{-2} mbar vacuum overnight so that traces of water are removed from the reactor.

2.2.2 Solvent Preparation

Cyclohexane (Aldrich, 99%) or benzene (Aldrich, 99.8%) were refluxed under argon atmosphere (Aga, 99.9999%, ISO 14175-I1-Ar) with oligostyryllithium, made of *sec*-butyllithium (Aldrich, 1.4M solution in hexanes, 1 ml per liter of cyclohexane) and styrene (Aldrich, 99%, stabilized with 4-*tert*-butylcatechol, 5 ml per liter of cyclohexane).

THF (Aldrich, 99.9%, inhibitor-free) was refluxed under argon atmosphere with sodium (oxido-diphenylmethyl)sodium made of an excess of sodium (Aldrich, 98%) and benzophenone (Aldrich, 99%).

After the preparations, the solvents were distilled directly into reactors.

2.2.3 Monomers Preparation

Styrene and styrene-d8 (Cambridge Isotope Laboratories, 98%, stabilized with 4-*tert*-butylcatechol) were filtrated through a column with aluminum oxide (to remove the stabilizer and water) to a flask with calcium hydride, degassed and distilled to a vacuum-dried di-*n*-butylmagnesium (Aldrich, 1M solution in heptane). Afterwards, the monomers were distilled into ampoules.

Butadiene (Aldrich, 99.6%, stabilized with 4-*tert*-butylcatechol) was transferred to a liquid nitrogen cooled flask with a vacuum-dried Bu_2Mg and degassed. The flask was left overnight at -18°C. Afterwards, the monomer was distilled into an ampoule.

2.2.4 Initiator Preparation

sec-BuLi was purchased from Aldrich (1.4M solution in hexanes). Its concentration was determined according to the Gilman double titration method [132], obtaining the value of active *sec*-BuLi by subtracting the amount of degraded *sec*-BuLi (determined by titrating bases after neutralizing the active *sec*-BuLi with 1,2-dibromoethane) from the amount of overall bases (determined by titrating the water-quenched solution of the initiator).

A handful of alternative titration methods have been also tested with the aim of replacing Gilman double titration protocol that employs carcinogenic 1,2-dibromoethane with no particular success: 1,3-diphenyl-2-propanone tosylhydrazone in THF did not give sharp color change at the equivalence point assigned to the tosylhydrazone dianion formation [133], whereas the titration [134, 135] with 2,2'-biquinoline indicator did not give reproducible results.

Naphtalenides of alcali metals were prepared according to the standard procedure [136].

2.3 Linear Polymers Synthesis

The narrow molecular weight polystyrenes were synthesized using the method of living anionic polymerization according to the standard procedure [137]. Reactions were carried out for 4-5 hours at 30-35°C in cyclohexane. Living anions were neutralized with degassed methanol. After this step, the reaction mixtures were precipitated into methanol. Polymers were collected and dried in vacuum at 50°C for 24 hours.

2.4 Star (co)Polymers Syntheses

2.4.1 Three-Arm Star Polystyrene with a Silicon Core

Reactions were carried out in freshly distilled THF. The synthesis consisted of two stages: first, linear polymer growth at -78°C was carried out for 30 minutes; second, the star formation stage at the same temperature with methyltrichlorosilane as the coupling agent took from 4 to 20 hours, depending on the molecular weight of the linear species. The 1.3 molar excess of living anions (used to avoid the doubling of the molecular weight of the linear polymer) was neutralized with degassed MeOH. The resulting polymer solution was fractionated, precipitated, collected and dried in vacuum at 50°C for 24 hours.

2.4.2 Three-Arm Star Polystyrene with a Carbon Core

The synthesis was done the same way as in Sec. 2.4.1, but with the use of 1,3,5-tris(bromomethyl)benzene as the coupling agent and took 8-30 hours for coupling because of the lower reactivity of the bromomethylbenzene species.

2.4.3 Three-Arm Star *block*-PSH-*block*-PSD Star Polymers with the Silicon Core

Reactions were carried out in THF. The synthesis consisted of three stages: first, linear polystyrene-*d*8 block growth was started at -108°C with the use of a melting THF bath, giving a narrow polydispersity for the case of low molecular weight blocks in THF (PDI of 2.08 at -78°C and PDI of 1.09-1.16 at -108°C, as shown in Tables 2.1, 2.4).

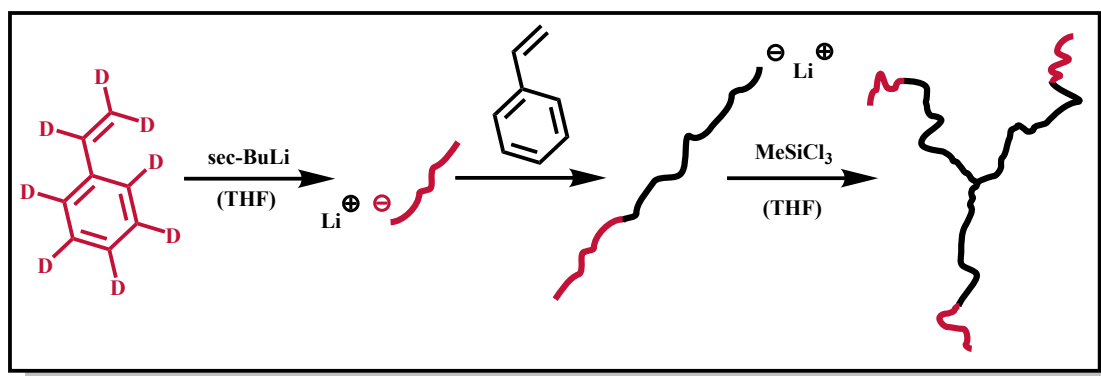


Figure 2.1: Synthetic route to the block-copolymer stars.

The stage took 20 minutes. The second stage started at -108°C and the reaction mixture was allowed to slowly warm up to -78°C upon the addition of the second monomer. The stage took 30 minutes. The final stage and polymer handling were identical to the ones described in Sec. 2.4.1.

2.4.4 Three-Arm Star *block*-PSH-*block*-Oligobutadiene Star Polymers with the Silicon Core

Reactions were carried out in cyclohexane. The synthesis consisted of two stages: first, linear polymer growth, was done according to the procedure, described in Sec. 2.3. The star formation stage at 35°C with methyltrichlorosilane as the coupling agent took 6 hours. The 1.3 molar excess of living anions was neutralized with a degassed 10% solution of AcOH in iPrOH. AcOH was used as the terminator instead of MeOH to avoid formation of lithium methanolate that could favour pentacoordinate silicon compounds obtainment through the alkoxide donation to the organosilane and the silicon-carbon bond cleavage reactions [138]. The resulting polymer solution was precipitated into 1% methanol solution of butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT), fractionated with the use of 1% solutions of BHT both in solvent and nonsolvent, precipitated again, collected and dried in vacuum at 50°C for 24 hours.

2.5 Fractionation

The process of collecting of the precipitated phases in succession gives the ability to fully separate significant amount of polymers of different molecular masses. Employing this technique, the fractionations were done using either toluene or THF or cyclohexane as solvents and n-heptane, n-hexane, methanol and isopropanol as the non-solvents, except for the polymers with oligobutadiene blocks, where THF was not used. The mentioned fractionations were done from 0.25-1% polymer solutions: a sample was dissolved in a solvent and, upon stirring, the amount of non-solvent was added until the turbidity of the solution. Then the solution was heated in order to dissolve the precipitates and left to slowly cool down in a separation funnel giving the separated phases, which were collected. The size-exclusion chromatograms of consecutive steps of fractionation are shown in Fig. 2.2. The peak in the high molecular weight region (less retarded at a size-exclusion column) is assigned to a star polymer, while the second peak is coming from the excess of linear chains, used for the coupling reaction. The different width of the normalized overlaid peaks may originate from different concentrations of used samples, whereas the peak position distribution is, within the experimental error, coming from the flow instabilities.

2.6 Size Exclusion Chromatography

The size exclusion chromatography (SEC) method excludes polymer molecules utilizing the partition equilibrium of polymer chains between common solvent phases located at the interstitial space and the pores of the column packing materials, typically in the form of uniformly sized porous beads. The stationary and mobile phases are chosen to minimize the enthalpic interaction of the polymeric solutes such that the partition equilibrium is mainly governed by the conformational entropy difference of the polymer chains in the two phases. SEC separates the polymer molecules according to the size of a macromolecule in the elution solvent. If a simple relationship exists between the chain size and the molecular weight of polymers

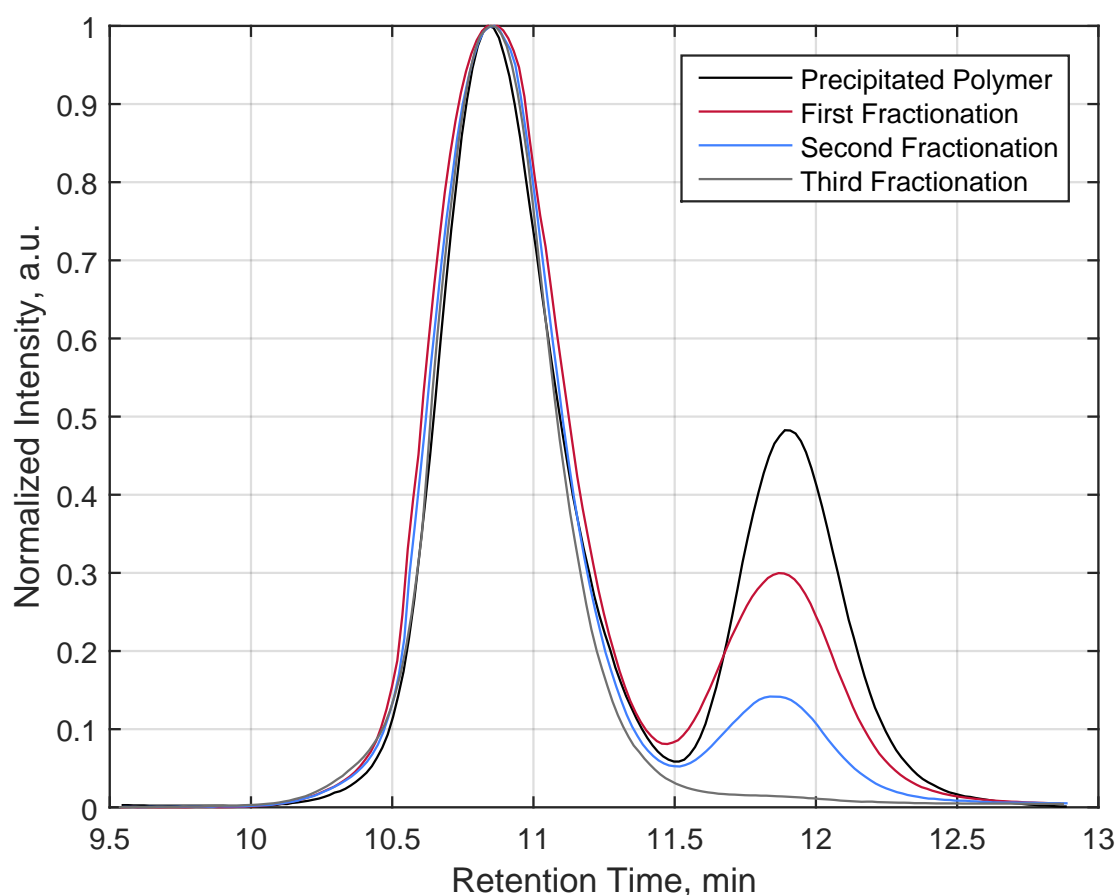


Figure 2.2: Size-Exclusion Chromatograms of a Star Polymer at Different Fractionation Stages.

such as for linear and chemically homogeneous polymers, SEC retention is well correlated with the molecular weight [139].

The molar masses of the polystyrene samples were determined with the help of SEC with non-stabilized THF as the eluent and with the use of a column set consisting of a 5 μm guard column and two 300 \times 8 mm^2 columns (PLgel Mixed C and Mixed D). The system was equipped with a triple detector system (a combined Viscotek model 200 differential refractive index (DRI) and a differential viscosity detector plus a Viscotek model LD 600 right angle laser light scattering detector (RALLS)).

Columns were calibrated with a number of narrow molar mass distribution linear polystyrene standards. On the basis of calibration and flow rate signal adjusting according to either Irganox 1010 or Irganox 1330 or BHT signals, the values of M_w and M_w/M_n (PDI) were determined.

The application of this calibration to branched macromolecules may underestimate the molar mass to some extent, depending on the present molecular architecture. To check the molar mass of the branched polymers, a method that is independent on the measured retention time, but employs both the DRI and RALLS signals was used:

$$DRI = k_1 c \frac{\partial n}{\partial c} \quad (2.1)$$

$$RALLS = k_2 c M \left(\frac{\partial n}{\partial c} \right)^2 \quad (2.2)$$

In the Eq. (2.1) and (2.2), k_1 and k_2 are the proportionality constants, c corresponds to the mass concentration, and $\partial n/\partial c$ is the refractive index increment.

These equations may serve for obtaining the expression for the molecular mass:

$$M_w = \frac{RALLS(k_1/k_2)}{DRI(\partial n/\partial c)} \quad (2.3)$$

The relation (2.3) was used to compute the molecular mass knowing the two signals and instrumental constants. Since the relation is independent on the molecular architecture, the quantity for $(k_1/k_2)/(\partial n/\partial c)$ is determined from the SEC signals of a narrow linear polystyrene standard. Thus, weight average molecular weight of a polymer is obtained regardless of the column calibration [140–144].

2.7 Matrix-Assisted Laser Desorption/Ionization Time-of-Flight Mass Spectroscopy

The molecular weight of polymers in some cases was additionally checked by the means of MALDI ToF MS.

MALDI ToF MS is a known powerful technique able to provide the molar mass, composition, and functionality of polymers. The molar mass distribution data of narrowly distributed polymers may be provided with good accuracy up to molar mass values of about 200 kg/mol [144]. The spectra were recorded according to the standard interlaboratory protocol for polystyrene samples using a Bruker Autoflex Speed instrument with a UV laser source at 337 nm in linear mode.

External mass calibration was performed with the use of a standard peptide mixture (insulin, thioredoxin) or porphyrin derivatives. The procedure of sample preparation involves dissolution of a compound, matrix and silver trifluoroacetate (added to enhance ionization by cation attachment) in solvents with known concentrations.

In short, 5 μ l of a 3 mg/ml polymer solution in THF was mixed with 10 μ l of 0.1M dithranol matrix in THF and 1 μ l of 0.02M AgTFA solution in toluene. The mixture was put on the Anchor chip samples holder, air-dried at ambient temperature and transferred to the instrument. Samples were ionized with 60–90% laser power and the final spectra were averaged out of 1000–2000 scans.

2.8 Polymer Samples

2.8.1 Linear Samples

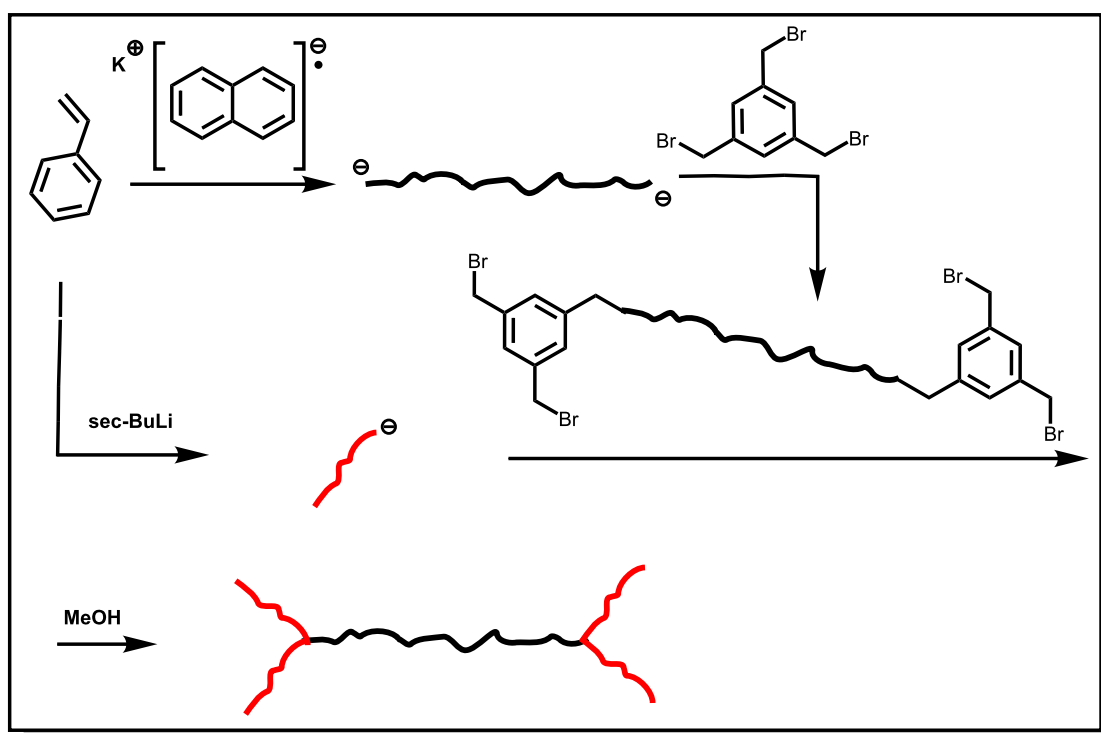
The table in this subsection shows the list of linear polystyrenes initiated by sec-BuLi. The time of the syntheses is given in hours or an approximate estimate 'overnight' is written.

#	M_w , kg/mol	PDI	Solvent	T , °C	Time
1	7.8	2.08	THF	-78	0.25
2	138.5	1.68	THF	-78	0.5
3	2.3	1.09	Cyclohexane	35	4
4	1.5	1.09	Cyclohexane	35	72
5	95	1.05	Cyclohexane	30	4
6	156.5	1.06	Cyclohexane	35	4
7	916.3	1.18	Cyclohexane	35	4
8	171.8	1.09	Cyclohexane	35	4
9	84.2	1.06	Cyclohexane	35	overnight

Table 2.1: Linear PS Samples.

2.8.2 POM-POM Samples

Two unsuccessful synthetic routes to POM-POM polymers were tested. The idea behind one route was to create a living dianion and terminate it with an excess of 1,3,5-Tris(bromomethyl)-benzene (3BnBr), fractionate from the terminator, and attach another linear living monoanions at the methylenebromide sites.

**Figure 2.3:** The reaction scheme describing the unsuccessful POM-POM polymer synthesis with the use of the excess of 3BnBr terminator.

This was impossible at the conditions we were using since at those conditions some fractions of molecular weight doubling occurred. The reaction scheme for this route is shown in Fig. 2.3. Another approach was to use the specifically synthesized terminators, 1,3-bis-(1-phenylvinyl)benzene (DPEBr) and 1-(4-(3-Bromopropyl)phenyl)-1-phenylethylene (DPEBr3), synthesized according to the method suggested by the Hirao group [124]. The use of these terminators to living anions in the molar ratio 3:4 would allow to create a linear polymer with a reactive double bond in the middle of the molecule. The next hypothetical step would be to attack this double bond by living dianions, producing a POM-POM polymer. This synthetic route was not successful because it was impossible to fully separate the terminator from its predecessor, the corresponding ketone and its low reactivity. The terminator synthesis is shown in Fig. 2.4 and the reaction scheme is shown in Fig. 2.5.

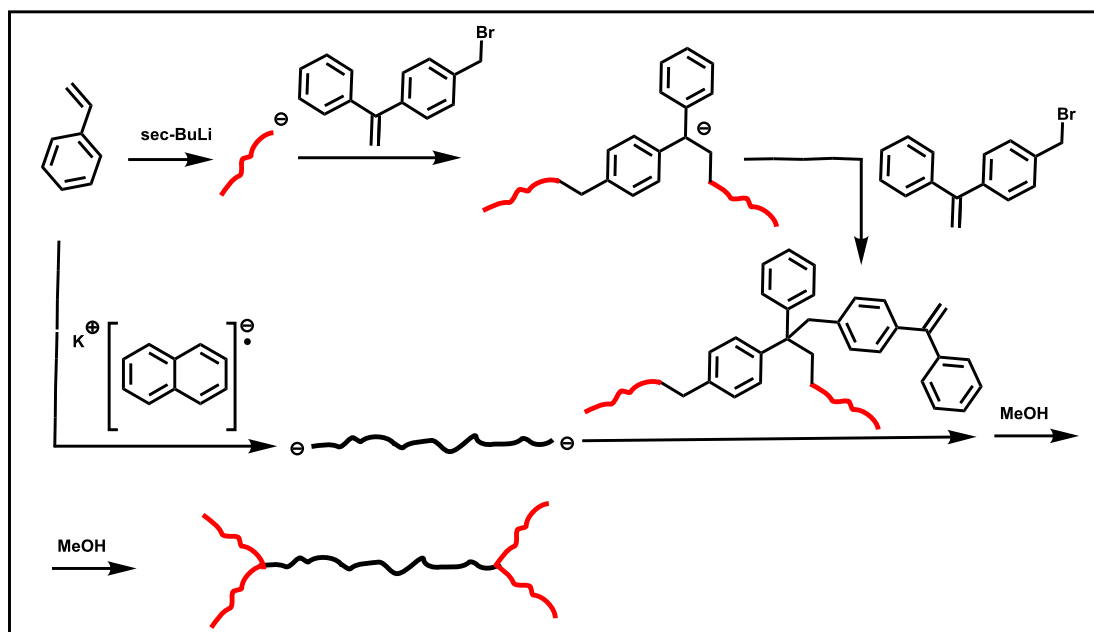


Figure 2.5: The reaction scheme describing the unsuccessful POM-POM polymer synthesis with the use of the DPEBr1 terminator.

In the table below, 'RT' stands for room temperature, 'lin.' — linear, 'lpp.' — linear part of a POM-POM, i.e. POM-POM without arm, 'UCD' — until the living anion color disappearance, 'MNaPh' — naphthalenide of an alkali metal, 'CH' — cyclohexane and 'PhH' — benzene.

The reactions were initiated by *sec*-BuLi until something else is written in square brackets in 'Comments' section of the table.

2.8.3 Star Samples

All the linear polymers for the star samples were initiated by *sec*-BuLi.

The coupling agent was 1,3,5-Tris(bromomethyl)benzene (3BnBr), except for the sample #14, which was coupled with MeSiCl₃. '#fr.' stands for the number of fractionations made to exclude the needed polymer.

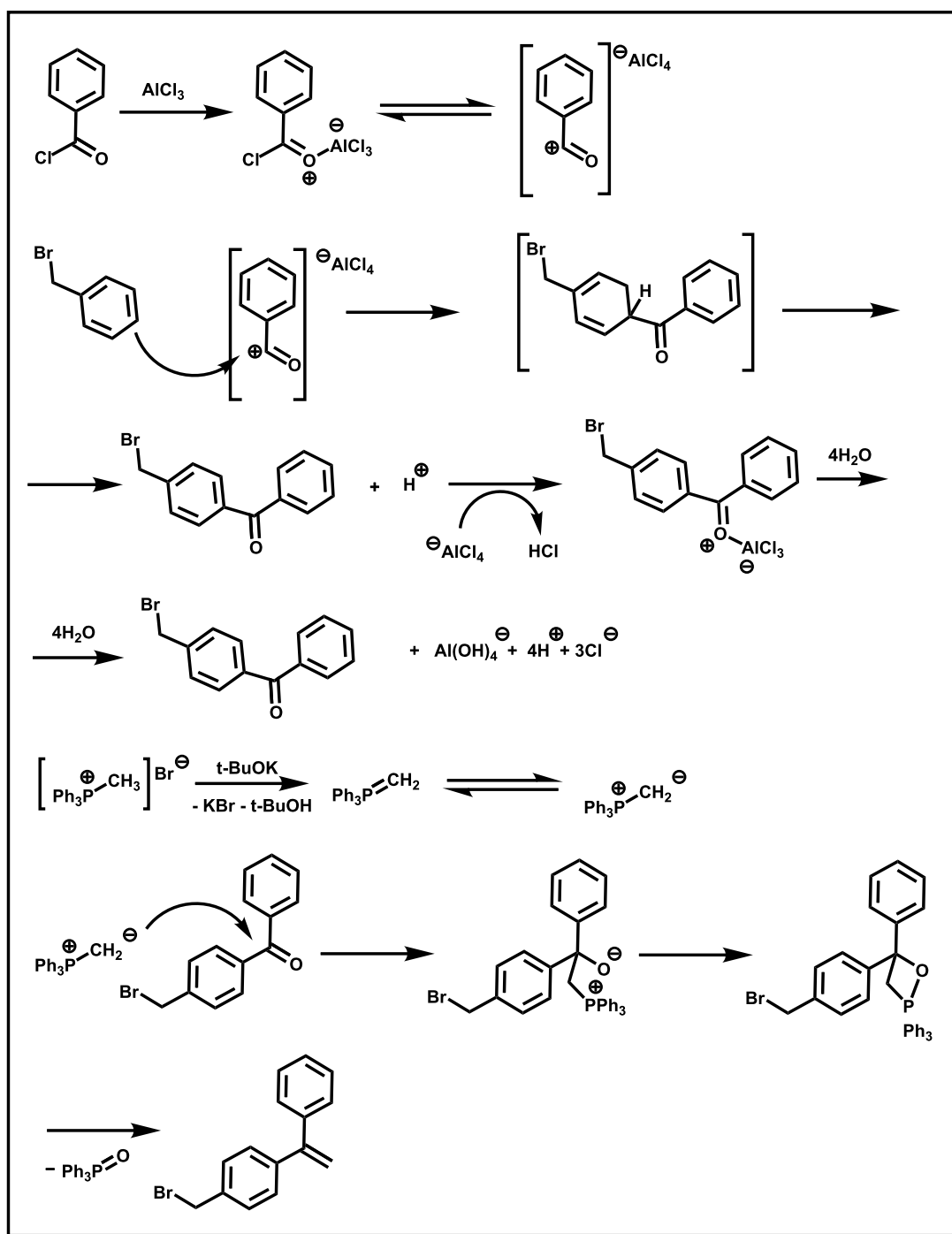


Figure 2.4: The reaction scheme describing the synthesis of the DPEBr1 terminator.

#	Arch.	M_w	PDI	Solv.	T, °C	Time	Comments
1	lin.	1757.0	1.70	CH	35	4	[KNapht], Unexpectedly long PS
2	lin.	124.8	1.87	CH	35	4	[KNapht], broad PD
3	lin.	70.4	1.62	THF	-78	0.5	[NaNapht], broad PD
4	lin.	146.2	1.22	THF	-78	0.5	[KNapht]
	lpp.	438.2	2.36	THF	-78	UCD	Unexpected coupling
5	lin.	53.6	1.61	THF	-78	0.5	[KNapht]
	lpp.	72.0	2.11	THF	-78	UCD	Unexpected coupling
6	lin.	107.8	1.30	PhH	RT	2	[LiNapht]
	lpp.	733.6	4.24	PhH	RT	UCD	Unexpected coupling
7	lin.	63.9	1.33	THF	-78	0.5	[KNapht]
	lpp.	214.7	2.36	THF	-78	UCD	Living anion added dropwise
8	lin.	35.2	1.07	THF	-78	0.5	Terminated with DPEBr
	lpp.	42.6	1.19	THF	-78	UCD	Impossible to fractionate
9	lin.	174.3	1.13	THF	-78	0.5	Terminated with DPEBr3
	lpp.	307.0	1.29	THF	-78	UCD	Impossible to fractionate

Table 2.2: List of polymers obtained according to unsuccessful strategies.

#	Arch.	M_w	PDI	Solv.	T, °C	Time	#fr.	Comments
1	lin.	37.6	1.08	CH	35	4		
	star	72.1	1.37	CH	35	overnight		Incomplete coupling
2	lin.	1085.0	2.11	CH	35	6		Unexpectedly long PS
	star	1206.0	2.01	CH	35	overnight		
3	lin.	144.6	1.11	CH	35	4		
	star	211.1	1.49	CH	35	overnight		Incomplete coupling
4	lin.	30.7	1.13	THF	-78	1		
	star	57.4	1.34	THF	-78	4		Incomplete coupling
5	lin.	28.7	1.23	THF	-108	0.5		
	star	64.9	1.14	THF	-78	6		Incomplete coupling
6	lin.	64.8	1.90	THF	-78	0.5		
	star	105.3	1.77	THF	-78	overnight		Solution became too viscous
7	lin.	74.2	2.39	THF	-78	0.5		Broad PD
8	lin.	53.1	2.10	THF	-78	0.5		Broad PD
9	lin.	33.6	1.20	THF	-78	0.5		
	star	88.2	2.60	THF	-78	overnight		Broad PD
10	lin.	9	1.10	THF	-108	0.5		
	star	26.5	1.10	THF	-78	overnight	7	
11	lin.	70.3	1.52	THF	-78	0.5		
	star	171.1	1.32	THF	-78	overnight	2	
12	lin.	34.5	1.17	THF	-78	1		
	star	91.9	1.10	THF	-78	overnight	4	
13	lin.	38.1	1.14	THF	-78	1		
	star	100.8	1.09	THF	-78	overnight	4	
14	lin.	34.8	1.03	THF	-78	0.5		
	star	88.2	1.05	THF	-78	overnight	3	Coupled with MeSiCl ₃

Table 2.3: Star polymer samples.

2.8.4 Deuterated Star Samples

All polymerization were initiated by sec-BuLi. MeSiCl₃ as the coupling agent was used.

'linDH' stands for linear copolymer made of randomly distributed deuterated and protonated styrenes, 'linD' — linear deuterated polystyrene block, 'linH' — linear protonated polystyrene block, 'linDlinH' — linear living copolymer made of consecutive linear blocks of deuterated and protonated polystyrenes used for the star-coupling reaction.

#	Arch.	M_w	PDI	Solv.	T, °C	Time	#fr.	Comments
1	linDH	95.8	1.20	THF	-78	0.5		Broad PD
	star	389.5	1.80	THF	-78	overnight		
2	linDH	98.8	1.06	THF	-78	0.5	3	
	star	290.4	1.09	THF	-78	20		
3	linDH	99.7	1.04	THF	-78	0.5	8	
	star	303.0	1.07	THF	-78	20		
4	linD	10.0	1.40	THF	-78	0.25		Broad PD
5	linD	10.0	1.12	THF	-108	0.25		Broad PD
	linDlinH	268.1	1.70	THF	-108	0.5		
6	linD	5.9	1.05	THF	-108	0.25		Broad PD
	linDlinH	86.1	1.80	THF	-108	0.5		
7	linD	4.4	1.09	THF	-108	0.25	2	Incomplete coupling
	linDlinH	108.1	1.14	THF	-108	0.5		
	star	236.9	1.18	THF	-78	6		
8	linD	6.2	1.16	THF	-108	0.25		Broad PD Incomplete coupling
	linDlinH	116.7	1.60	THF	-108	0.5		
	star	282.8	1.80	THF	-78	6		
9	linD	7.8	1.14	THF	-108	0.25		Broad PD
	linDlinH	101.7	1.40	THF	-108	0.5		
	star	309.1	1.30	THF	-78	20		

Table 2.4: PSD-PSH Star Samples.

2.8.5 block-PSH-block-Oligobutadiene Star Samples

All the polymerization were initiated by sec-BuLi and MeSiCl₃ was used as the coupling agent.

'linPS' — linear protonated polystyrene block, 'linPSlinPB' — linear living copolymer made of consecutive linear blocks of protonated polystyrene and polybutadiene used for the star-coupling reaction

#	Arch.	M_w	PDI	Solv.	T, °C	Time	#fr.	Comments
1	linPS	49.2	1.07	CH	35	4	6	Degraded during fractionation
	linPSlinPB	53.8	1.09	CH	35	0.5		
	star	130.0	1.30	CH	35	4		
2	linPS	45.8	1.03	CH	35	4	2	
	linPSlinPB	46.0	1.03	CH	35	0.5		
	star	135.8	1.03	CH	35	6		

Table 2.5: PS-PB Star Samples.

2.8.6 Comparison of SEC and MALDI ToF MS data

SEC was the main method to estimate the M_w and M_w/M_n of the synthesized polymers since MALDI ToF MS underestimates the high-mass components of the polymer distribution which results in lower average molecular weight values [145, 146]. MALDI ToF MS was used to cross-check the results of SEC, especially for the case of star polymers. The crucial information, that was taken from the absolute quantitative technique of MALDI ToF MS data is the molecular weight of the highest peak, which, for the case of star polymer sample #10, is equal to 27.1 kg/mol, as shown in Fig. 2.8. This information was later used to control the data from SEC, which is a relative technique and is dependent on column calibration and is known to have uncertainties in case of branched polymers, as was mentioned before. The final chromatogram for the star sample #10, which is shown in Fig. 2.7, gives M_w of 26.5 kg/mol for the sample, which is comparable to the result, obtained by MALDI ToF MS.

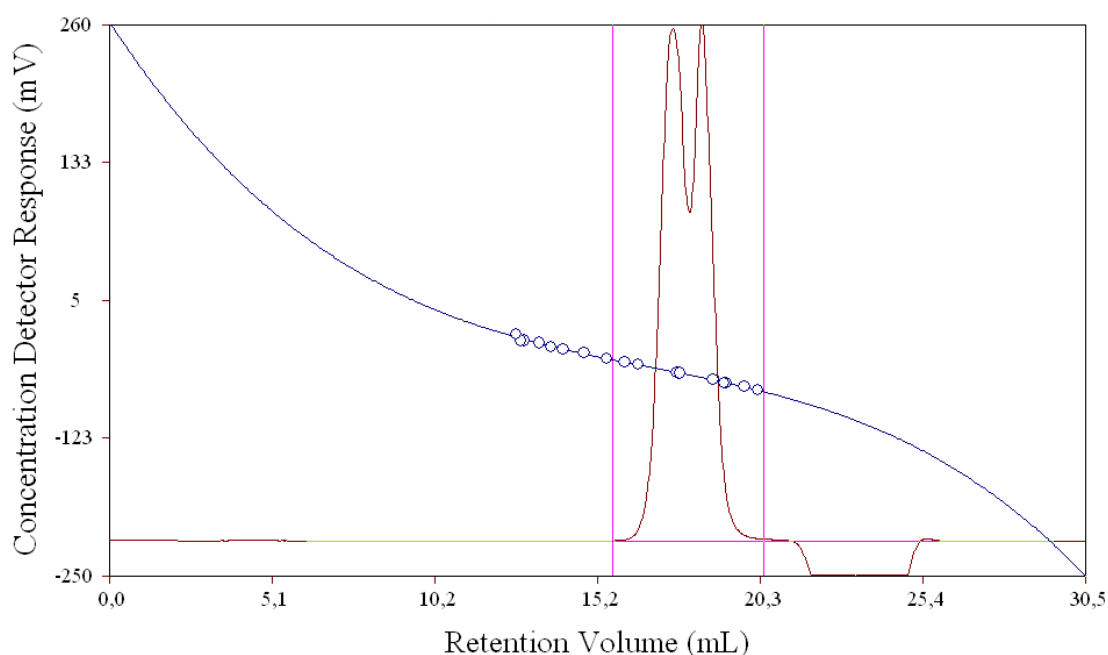


Figure 2.6: SEC chromatogram of the star polymer sample after the coupling reaction. Left peak represents the 3-arm star polymer, while the peak to the right is an excess of linear arm.

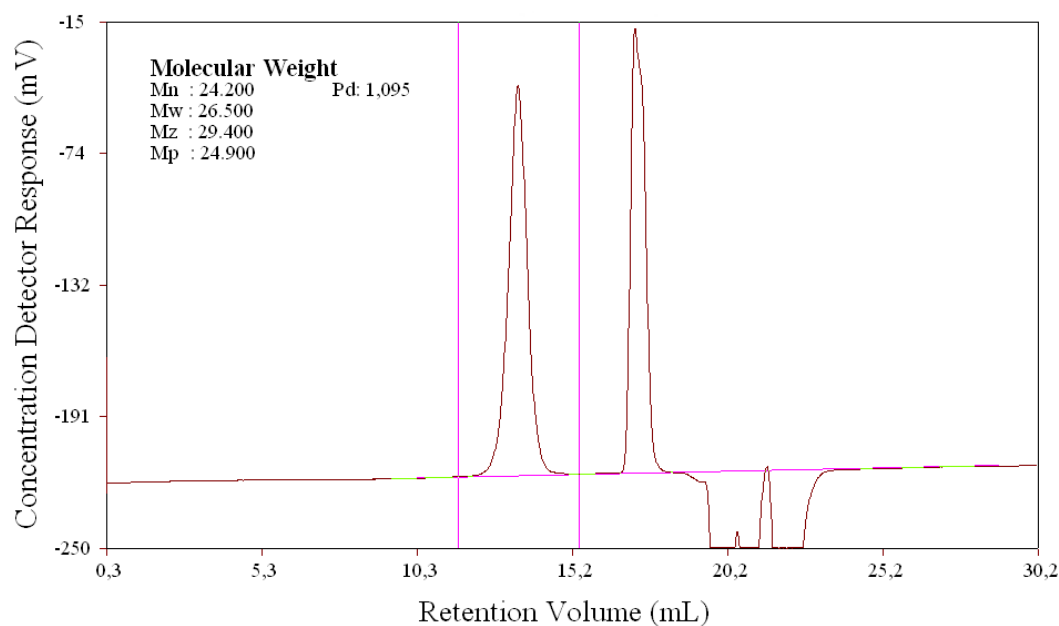


Figure 2.7: SEC chromatogram of the star polymer after 7 fractionation steps. The peak to the right — Irganox 1330 standard. The shape of the standard peak is due to a high concentration of Irganox which resulted in so-called ‘column overload’.

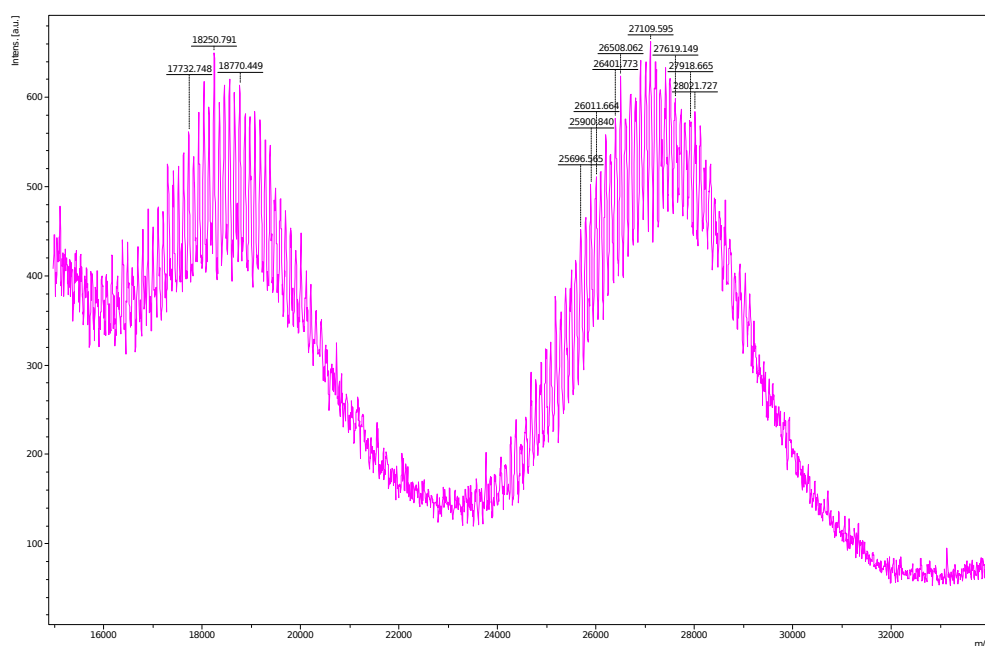


Figure 2.8: MALDI ToF Mass Spectrum of the star polymer sample after 2 fractionation steps.

CHAPTER 3

Filament Stretching Rheometer

For the purpose of experimental realization of uniaxial extension such types of extensional rheometers as Münsted tensile rheometer [147], the Meissner elongational rheometer [148], the filament stretching rheometer (FSR) [149] and the Sentmanat extensional rheometer [150] are employed [151]. Rheometers except for FSR utilize integral methods, applying uniform deformations with the use of prescribed mechanical motion related to a known strain [151]. In FSR, which measures stress during uniaxial extension, the rheological properties of a liquid between two plates are determined by pulling apart the top plate and measuring the force by a load cell at the bottom plate. The ideal uniaxial extension is recorded when a constant strain rate is directed towards the middle part of a filament [152, 153], with an active control loop system that defines the top plate motion depending on the middle diameter of the filament [151].

3.1 Principle of the Instrument

The FSR is composed of a bottom plate with a compression/tension load cell (Futek lrf400: 4.5 N capacity, 0.05% error on the maximum capacity, placed outside the thermostated environment) which is stationary and a mobile upper plate, which movement is generated by a step motor (Stebon FD8L604 with a Parker OEM650 step drive and an AT6200 controller). A sample is placed between the two plates and then covered with a thermostated oven. The heat in the oven is produced by eight heat elements and the temperature is regulated with the aid of six temperature sensitive pickers. Nitrogen that ensures an inert atmosphere during experiments is preheated at the bottom of the oven and flows into the chamber nullifying temperature gradients and good heat conduction in the oven. There are two slits at both sides of the oven which are covered with glass which is penetratable by Keyence LS7500 laser while measuring the diameter of a filament during a stretching experiment. The laser micrometer is placed in the middle between the two plates and motioned at the half of the speed of the upper plate, recording the middle filament diameter during the uniaxial extension. The laser is also capable of recording video images of the filament, giving a possibility to check the initial shape of a filament and possible sample neckings. The diameter is determined within a $\pm 10 \mu\text{m}$ error with a lower limit of 0.3 mm. The FSR is able to produce the possible Hencky strain of max. ≈ 6.8 [151, 155].



Figure 3.1: FSR (left) in a position when a sample is covered by the oven and the part inside the oven (right) with a sample (light red) between the two plates [154].

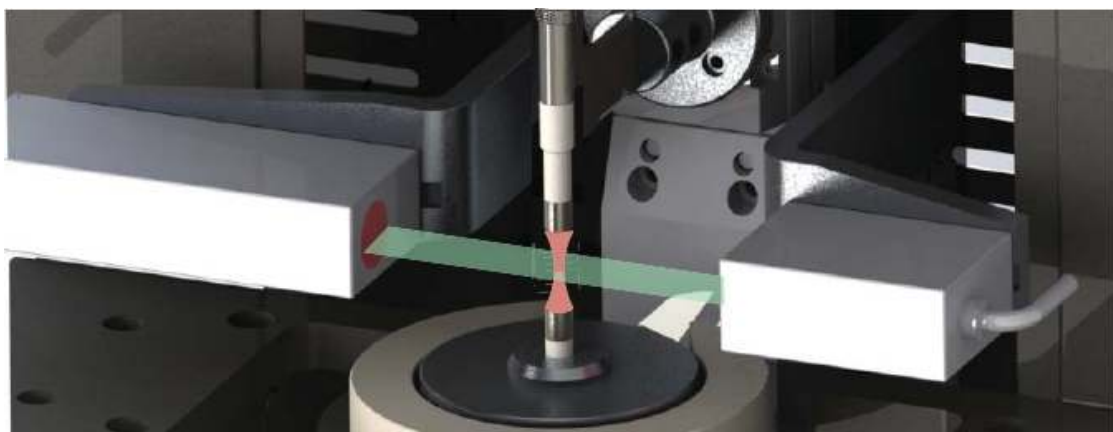


Figure 3.2: FSR measures the diameter at midfilament position, i.e. at the point of highest stress [156].

3.2 Sample Preparation

Polystyrene samples after the synthesis procedure are precipitated into MeOH, collected and dried for 24 hours at 50°C. If the needed sample consisted of several polymers, blends were produced by dissolving the weighted amount of polymers in THF overnight at room temperature and then poured into methanol and filtrated. Polymers and polymer blends are then dried in vacuum for 2 weeks at 70°C to remove all solvents. After that, approximately 0.1 g of the dried polymer or blend is hot-pressed into a cylindrical pellet (diameter — 9 mm, height — 2.5 mm) for 10 minutes at 140°C and allowed to cool down. A pellet is mounted on the bottom plate of the FSR, pre-heated to 150°C, and the upper plate is moved down to the sample. Before the experiments, the sample is left at this temperature to fully relax from any stresses which were monitored by the load cell [157].

3.3 Uniaxial extension

The load cell at the bottom plate of the FSR measures the force, $F(t)$, during the uniaxial extension. At the same time, the diameter in the middle of the filament, $2R(t)$, is measured by the laser micrometer. This data is then used to calculate the Hencky strain:

$$\epsilon(t) = -2 \ln \left(\frac{R(t)}{R_0} \right), \quad (3.1)$$

with R_0 being the initial radius of the sample. The strain rate is then defined as:

$$\dot{\epsilon} = \frac{d\epsilon}{dt} \quad (3.2)$$

Since filament radius decreases exponentially at:

$$R(t) = R_0 \exp(-0.5\dot{\epsilon}_0 t), \quad (3.3)$$

the value of the stress difference is calculated based on the acquired data from $R(t)$ and $F(t)$ (ignoring inertial and surface tension effects) [158]:

$$\langle \sigma_{zz} - \sigma_{rr} \rangle = \frac{F(t) - m_f g/2}{\pi R(t)^2}, \quad (3.4)$$

with m_f being the filament weight and g — gravitational acceleration. It has to be noted that at small aspect ratios $\Lambda_0 = L_0/R_0$ with L_0 being the initial length of the sample, a part of stress difference originates from the radial variation because of small shear components in the field of deformation. This effect is nullified with the use of correction factor with the corrected mean value of the stress difference being [157, 159]:

$$\langle \sigma_{zz} - \sigma_{rr} \rangle_{corr} = \langle \sigma_{zz} - \sigma_{rr} \rangle \left[1 + \frac{\exp(-5\epsilon/3 - \Lambda_0^3)}{3\Lambda_0^2} \right]^{-1} \quad (3.5)$$

The radial variation of the stress is insignificant at large strains and therefore this correction becomes unnecessary [152]. Dividing the mean difference stress value by the Hencky strain rate, the value for extensional stress growth coefficient is then obtained [154]:

$$\bar{\eta}^+ = \frac{\langle \sigma_{zz} - \sigma_{rr} \rangle_{corr}}{\dot{\epsilon}} \quad (3.6)$$

3.4 Stress relaxation

Stress relaxation is measured after uniaxial extension. At a certain Hencky strain ϵ_0 the extension is stopped resulting in $\dot{\epsilon} = 0$. Even though necking instabilities cause problems during the stress relaxation procedure [160], the use of a close loop controller enables to control the diameter of a filament precisely giving the needed Hencky strain during the necking phase [157, 160, 161].

3.5 Filament quenching

After uniaxial extension or stress relaxation procedures polymer samples are quenched below the polymer glass transition temperature by cold nitrogen flow saving the macromolecular configurations. The ‘frozen’ samples [Fig. 3.3] are stored at room temperature and then used for the small-angle neutron scattering experiments.



Figure 3.3: Polymer samples, left to right: 0, 10, 20, 80, 320, 1260 and 12000 seconds after stress relaxation.

The cooling rate was sufficiently enough to freeze filaments faster than the Rouse time of the polymer chain, which ensures the stability of molecular configurations [154].

3.6 Data for the SANS series

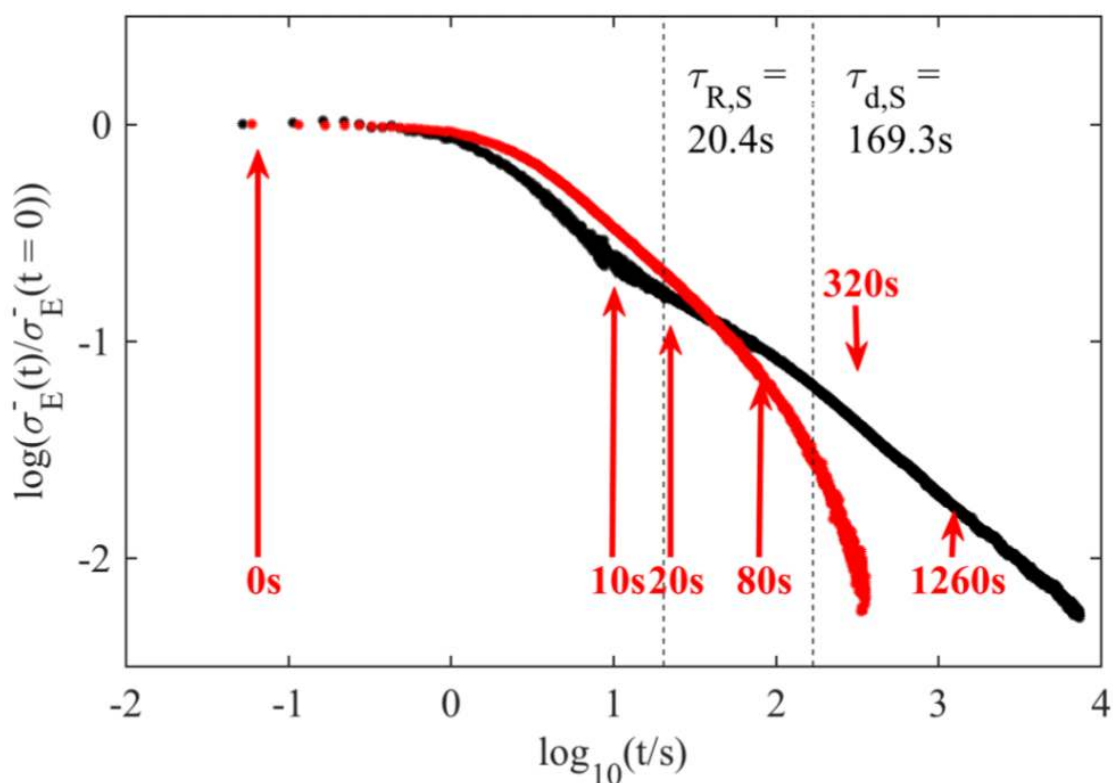


Figure 3.4: Tensile stress relaxation of the polymer blend made of 545 and 95 kg/mol linear PS (black) and the blend of 95 and 86 kg/mol linear PS (red) samples at 130°C after cessation of fast uniaxial elongational flow at Hencky strain = 3 and strain rate = 0.1 s^{-1} . Dashed vertical lines indicate the short chain Rouse and reptation time. Red arrows indicate times where a quenched sample was produced for scattering studies [162].

3.7 Stability of the Star Polymers during the Rheological Studies

Despite the inert atmosphere during the FSR measurements, some macromolecular architectures are liable to degrade [157] under experimental conditions. A part of our studies was allocated to synthesize branched high molecular structures able to survive increased temperatures and to establish reasons why similar macromolecules can either degrade or not.

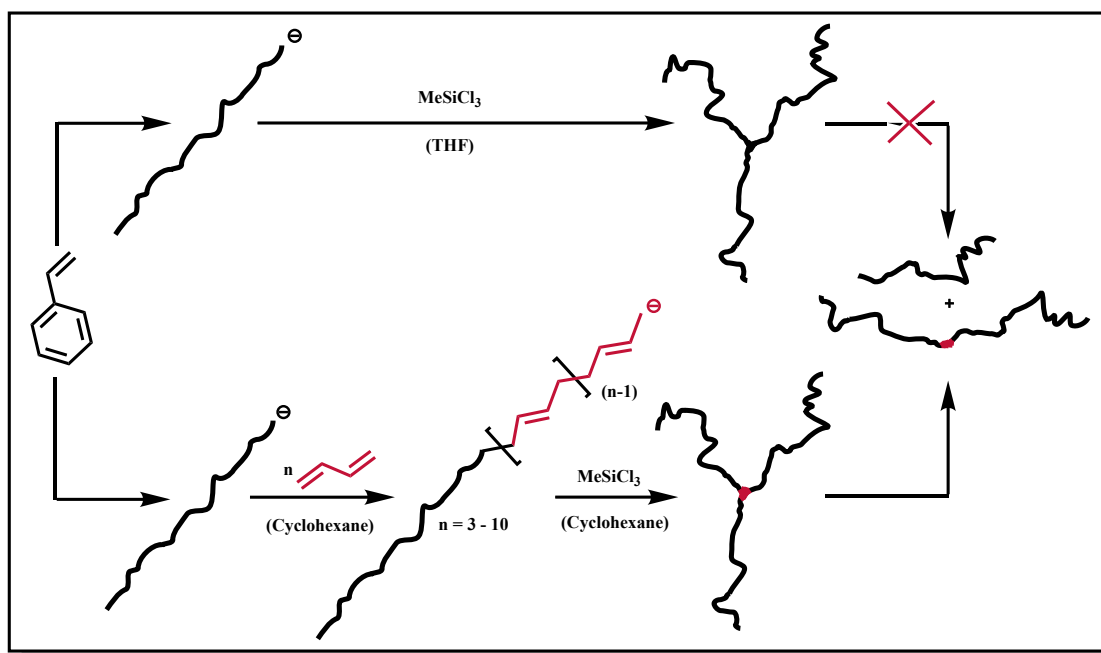


Figure 3.5: Two synthetic routes to the same branched molecular architectures with different stabilities against radicals at elevated temperatures.

The output for these investigations is that the macromolecular architectures with the butadienyl block linked with the silicon atom are prone to degradation during the FSR experiments. The trick of converting sterically hindered living anions to a smaller butadienyl anionic moiety, which is used among synthetic chemists [163] in order to obtain higher yields of higher molecular weight polymers introduces a weak point near the branching site, that can be easily attacked by radicals at elevated temperatures. The two synthetic routes for 3-arm star polymers are shown in Fig. 3.5, while the detailed information on the star polymers stability is given in Appendix A.

CHAPTER 4

Neutron Scattering

4.1 Overview

In this chapter general scientific nomenclature and basic theory behind neutron scattering and specifically, small-angle neutron scattering will be introduced. The chapter presents well-established knowledge taken from the book ‘Neutron Scattering and Other Nuclear Techniques for Hydrogen in Materials’ [164], otherwise a reference to a specific paper is provided.

4.2 Why Neutrons

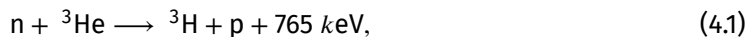
Neutron scattering is a technique which is able to effectively probe atomic positions of light elements on mesoscale and, at the same time, to distinguish the scattering power of two lighter hydrogen isotopes which is crucial for the compounds of current research that are labeled with deuterium, thus giving insight into the structural characteristics depending on stretching and relaxation. Moreover, it is the only method to see conformation of a whole polymer chain, using the labelling method described thereinbefore. Polymers of interest for the rheology studies in this work are represented by light elements only, making other research techniques (X-ray/electron scattering, etc.) pointless to use. Since there is no alternative to neutron scattering for such studies, researchers in this area have to deal with pale neutron fluxes, weak scattering and limited beamtimes.

4.3 Production of Neutrons

There are two well-established routes to produce neutrons: nuclear spallation, which is caused by collision of accelerated high-energy protons targeted at a heavy metal and nuclear fission, for which ^{235}U is commonly used. We used both types of neutron sources in this work. Neutrons, once created, are guided to moderators in order to tune their energies so they can be used in scattering experiments. Neutrons reach thermal equilibrium with the moderator and by means of that slow down. Typical moderators at this stage are H_2O and D_2O at room temperature, that tune the Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution of wavelengths to the one with a peak at 0.18 nm . Wavelengths of neutrons can also be tuned at hot (graphite, 2000 K) or cold (D_2 or H_2 , 20 K) moderators to be suitable for different experiments. Further, the wavelength spread of neutrons is either cut by a monocrystal of a reflective material (monochromator) allowing only those neutrons that satisfy the Bragg law pass in the direction of an instrument or a specific wavelength is selected by a mechanical velocity selector. Monochromized beam consists only of $\approx 1\%$ of the total number of neutrons.

4.4 Detection of Neutrons

Neutrons are detected indirectly, registering positively charged particles that are made after such nuclear reactions, as:



in an ionization medium made of carbon dioxide, methane or argon. Since the gases for detection (${}^3\text{He}$ or ${}^{10}\text{BF}_3$) are either extremely expensive or highly toxic, nowadays a certain effort is headed towards the production of a new type of detectors without these drawbacks and that are possibly able to provide a higher count rate for brighter fluxes that are expected at, for example, European Spallation Source. A potential replacement could be the neutron scintillator with the nuclear reaction:



followed by ZnS excitation by the energy of the reaction. ZnS is then emitting light of a wavelength of 470 nm, which is further photomultiplied and recorded via a CCD-camera. Neutron scintillators are, though, limited in counting rate because of the long afterglow after a neutron capture due to the thickness of the material used, which is set by opaqueness of its own light.

Some research is aimed at the boron-lined converter as a promising alternative to the present neutron detectors. It utilizes the idea of ${}^{10}\text{B}_4\text{C}$ film for a counting tube. If a neutron is captured by a ${}^{10}\text{B}$ atom, the reaction product ionizes the gas inside the tube, which is then recorded. The use of this detector design is though limited by a lower detection rate compared to ${}^3\text{He}$ detectors.

4.5 Neutron Interactions with Matter

Neutrons are non-charged particles interacting with atom nuclei and, due to the existence of magnetic dipole momentum raised from three charged quarks in the composition of neutrons, with the unpaired electrons or magnetic nuclei in magnetic atoms. Neutrons may be scattered elastically and inelastically or absorbed by matter. The further description will be narrowed to one type of scattering, since for the needs of present studies only the repertoire of elastic scattering techniques was in demand, while the inelastic part of the scattering data gave rise to some background noise in the raw scattering data and was therefore disregarded.

4.6 Basic SANS theory

SANS is a non-destructive low-resolution method giving averaged information on structures from about 10 Ångströms to thousands of Ångströms within the volume subjected to a neutron beam. This specificity is crucial for the application of the method in polymer research, since there is no necessity to visualize each individual macromolecule, while on the other hand there is a need to probe the bulk which is not possible with transmission electron or atom force microscopy. The power of SANS was utilized with the help of specific synthesis of targeted macromolecules bearing hydrogen and deuterium atoms that provide the difference in scattering length densities in order to highlight the domains of specific interest, as in our case, the individual (statistically averaged) molecules for polymer physics studies.

4.6.1 Scattering Vector

Neutron waves/particles [165] are scattered on nuclei of materials, spreading out as spherical waves. In this thesis we focus only on elastic, non-magnetic scattering of neutrons, the case where no energy has been transferred from a neutron to a nucleus. The scattering vector, Q , is then defined as the vector equal to the difference between the scattered, k_f , and incident, k_i , neutron wave numbers:

$$Q = |k_f - k_i| = \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \sin \theta, \quad (4.4)$$

with λ being the neutron wavelength and θ being a half of a scattering angle.

4.6.2 Interaction Radiation/Sample

When a neutron wave is scattered by one atom, the incoming plane wave/particle is then defined as:

$$a(\mathbf{r}) = e^{i\mathbf{k}_i \cdot \mathbf{r}}, \quad (4.5)$$

with $e^{i\mathbf{k}_i \cdot \mathbf{r}}$ being the standard exponential notation with no time dependence and \mathbf{r} being the positional variable. If we introduce a distance, D , from a detector to this equation, we can express it as:

$$a_1^f(D) = a_o b_1 \frac{e^{i\mathbf{k}_f \cdot \mathbf{D}}}{D}, \quad (4.6)$$

with $1/D$ being a term, accounting for the spherical wave and b_1 being the scattering length for neutrons, the term that accounts for the interaction with a nucleus.

If a neutron wave is scattered by another nucleus, the scattered wave will have a path difference with respect to the first neutron wave. It is expressed as $-\frac{Q}{k} \cdot \mathbf{r}$, with \mathbf{r} being the vector between two nuclei. The resulting phase difference hence will be $-Q \cdot \mathbf{r}$. Further introduction of a distance r between two nuclei, will end up in the sum expressed as:

$$a_2^f(D) = a_o b_2 \frac{e^{i\mathbf{k}_f \cdot \mathbf{D}}}{D} e^{-i\mathbf{Q} \cdot \mathbf{r}} + a_1^f(D), \quad (4.7)$$

with b_2 being the scattering length of the second atom, the index in term a_2 to show that this is a system of 2 atoms and the phase term accounting for the interference. In a system of n atoms the total scattered wave may be expressed as:

$$a_f(D) = \frac{a_o}{D} e^{i\mathbf{k}_f \cdot \mathbf{D}} \sum_{j=1}^n b_j e^{-i\mathbf{Q} \cdot \mathbf{r}_j}, \quad (4.8)$$

where \mathbf{r}_j is the position of nuclei j relative to nuclei 1 and with the averaged scattered intensity being:

$$\langle I_f(D) \rangle = \langle a_f(D) a_f^*(D) \rangle = \frac{a_o^2}{D^2} \left\langle \sum_{j=1}^n b_j e^{-i\mathbf{Q} \cdot \mathbf{r}_j} \sum_{k=1}^n b_k^* e^{-i\mathbf{Q} \cdot \mathbf{r}_k} \right\rangle \quad (4.9)$$

which is then rewritten as:

$$\langle I_f(D) \rangle = \frac{a_o^2}{D^2} \left\langle \sum_{j,k=1}^n b_j b_k^* e^{-i\mathbf{Q} \cdot \mathbf{r}_{jk}} \right\rangle \equiv \frac{a_o^2}{D^2} \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}(\mathbf{Q}) \quad (4.10)$$

where the term $d\Omega$ is the solid angle, which is covered by a detector, and the term $\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}$ is the differential scattering cross section, which shows the number of neutrons per second which are scattered into a solid angle and normalised to the neutron flux. The second term may be also rewritten in terms of unit sample volume, V , giving the differential scattering cross section per unit sample volume:

$$\frac{d\Sigma}{d\Omega}(\mathbf{Q}) = \frac{1}{V} \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \frac{1}{V} \sum_{j,k=1}^n \left\langle b_j b_k^* e^{-i\mathbf{Q} \cdot \mathbf{r}_{jk}} \right\rangle \quad (4.11)$$

This equation shows the interaction between the beam and the sample providing the information about the structure of the sample independent from the experimental setup.

4.6.3 Form and Structure Factors

A pattern which is recorded at a detector is the sum of all the interfered neutron wave amplitudes squared and may be mathematically represented using the terms that describe the shape of particles in a sample; their position, i.e. how they arranged with respect to each other; a constant term to which particle contrast, volume and concentration contribute. To deduct the final equation for this idea we have to start from the scattering length density of an inhomogeneous particle:

$$\rho(\mathbf{r}) = \sum \phi_j(\mathbf{r}) b_j \quad (4.12)$$

with ϕ_j being the local number density of a given isotope of an atom type in the particle of volume V_p (which could be a monomer volume). Now we define the scattering length density of a mixture of deuterated and non-deuterated polymers giving the scattering length difference:

$$\Delta\rho(\mathbf{r}) = \rho_H(\mathbf{r}) - \rho_D(\mathbf{r}) \quad (4.13)$$

The scattering amplitude is then calculated by integrating the scattered wave over all the atoms in volume of the whole sample V_p :

$$a_f(\mathbf{Q}) = \int_{V_p} \Delta\rho(\mathbf{r}) e^{-i\mathbf{Q} \cdot \mathbf{r}} d\mathbf{r} \quad (4.14)$$

In a system of N identical scattering elements at positions \mathbf{r}_j between them the total scattered wave is expressed as:

$$A_f(\mathbf{Q}) = \sum_{j=1}^N a_j^f(\mathbf{Q}) e^{-i\mathbf{Q} \cdot \mathbf{r}_j} \quad (4.15)$$

with $e^{-i\mathbf{Q} \cdot \mathbf{r}_j}$ being the phase term that describes the position of the particles. The resulting scattering is then:

$$\frac{d\Sigma}{d\Omega}(\mathbf{Q}) \propto \frac{1}{V} \left\langle A_f(\mathbf{Q}) A_f^*(\mathbf{Q}) \right\rangle \quad (4.16)$$

We assume that the scatterers are randomly oriented resulting in the spherical symmetry of the scattered intensity:

$$\frac{d\Sigma}{d\Omega}(\mathbf{Q}) = I(\mathbf{Q}) = I(Q) \quad (4.17)$$

Further development including intermolecular correlations gives rise to a structure factor $S(Q)$, that in the simple approximation may be multiplied to the form factor $P(Q)$ according to:

$$I(Q) \propto \frac{N}{V} \langle \Delta \rho \rangle^2 V_p^2 P(Q) S(Q) \quad (4.18)$$

with $\langle \Delta \rho \rangle^2$ being the contrast factor, $\frac{N}{V}$ – concentration, V_p – particle volume, $P(Q)$ – form factor, bearing information about individual particles and $S(Q)$ – structure factor, with the information about interactions between the particles.

4.6.4 Guinier Law

Guinier Law [166–168] is derived [169] substituting the McLaurin series (Taylor series expansion of a function about 0):

$$\frac{\sin(Qr)}{Qr} = 1 - \frac{Q^2 r^2}{6} + \frac{Q^4 r^4}{120} - \dots \quad (4.19)$$

into the equation of intensity of scattering:

$$I(Q) = 4\pi \int_0^D \gamma(r) \frac{\sin(Qr)}{Qr} r^2 dr \quad (4.20)$$

with D being the largest dimension in a particle. The substitution gives:

$$\begin{aligned} I(Q) &= 4\pi \int_0^D \gamma(r) \left[1 - \frac{1}{6} Q^2 r^2 \right] r^2 dr \\ &= 4\pi \int_0^D \gamma(r) r^2 dr - \frac{4\pi}{6} Q^2 \int_0^D \gamma(r) r^4 dr \\ &= I(0) \left(1 - \frac{1}{3} R_G^2 Q^2 \right) \end{aligned} \quad (4.21)$$

where

$$I(0) = 4\pi \int_0^D \gamma(r) r^2 dr \quad (4.22)$$

and

$$R_G^2 = \frac{\frac{1}{2} \int_0^D \gamma(r) r^4 dr}{\int_0^D \gamma(r) r^2 dr} \quad (4.23)$$

In proximity $Q = 0$ the right side of Eq. 4.19 can be rewritten as the first two terms of the McLaurin series of function $\exp(-R_G^2 Q^2/3)$. Finally, for $Q_{\max} \cdot R_G \leq 1.2$ [170], one can write the Guinier equation:

$$I(Q) = I(0) \exp(-R_G^2 Q^2/3) \quad (4.24)$$

4.6.5 Deuterium Labelling

For the contrast variation tables with scattering length, b , are utilized, and the total scattering cross section is defined as:

$$\sigma_s = \sigma_c + \sigma_i, \quad (4.25)$$

with σ_c being the coherent scattering, proportional to b_c^2 , and σ_i — the incoherent scattering, proportional to b_i^2 , giving background noise. The scattering lengths of two hydrogen isotopes are presented in Fig. 4.1. The elastic cross section at low energies is determined by the scattering length only.

Scattering length, b , [$10^{-15}m$]	1H	2H
Coherent b_c	-3.74	6.67
Incoherent b_i	25.3	4.04

Table 4.1: Scattering lengths for hydrogen and deuterium [171].

The present research utilizes deuterium labelling of either the whole or a part of a macro-molecule in order to ‘highlight’ polymer behavior during stress and relaxation. The synthetic part of these studies was planned in a manner that enabled contrast by either mixing deuterated and protonated polymers of the same molecular weight or by the synthesis of *D*- and *H*-blocks in a *block*-copolymer in a certain proportion, which ensures enough contrast for SANS studies and absence of phase separation. The excess of incoherent scattering, and, thus, problems with background subtraction came from the majority of protonated polymer species with a minority of deuterated ones due to the limited budget of the project, which did not allow buying a lot of deuterated monomers.

4.6.6 Background Subtraction. Porod Approximation

Porod Law [172–174] states that the wave/particle intensity that is elastically scattered by an amorphous system should decrease with the momentum transfer h as h^{-4} [175] if scattering from a sample is dominated by two phases with sharp interface between them.

Its derivation [176] utilizes the formula for scattering intensity of an infinitely dilute solution of spheres of radius R and smooth surfaces:

$$I(Q) = \left(\frac{N}{V}\right) \Delta\rho^2 V_p^2 F^2(QR) \quad (4.26)$$

with (N/V) being the spheres number density, $\Delta\rho^2$ — contrast factor, V_p — sphere volume and $F(QR)$ is the form factor amplitude for a single sphere:

$$F(QR) = \frac{3j_1(QR)}{QR} = \frac{3}{QR} \left(\frac{\sin(QR)}{(QR)^2} - \frac{\cos(QR)}{(QR)} \right) \quad (4.27)$$

The form factor for single sphere $P(QR) = F^2(QR)$ may also be defined as:

$$P(QR) = \int d^3r \exp[-i\vec{Q}\vec{r}] P(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{V_p} \int_0^\infty dr 4\pi r^2 \frac{\sin(Qr)}{Qr} \gamma(r) \quad (4.28)$$

with $P(\vec{r})$ being the pair correlation function, $\gamma(r)$ — radially defined probability distribution, representing the relative fraction of area of one sphere inside a larger sphere integrated over all possible locations, defined as $p(r, r')$:

$$p(r, r') = 1p(r, r') = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} \left[\frac{R^2 - r^2 - r'^2}{rr'} \right] \quad (4.29)$$

The first line here represents the case of $(R - r > r')$ and the second $(R - r \leq r')$. Next one can find the radial pair correlation function for a sphere [177]:

$$\gamma(r) = \frac{\int_0^{R_A} dr' 4\pi r'^2 p(r, r')}{\int_0^{R_A} dr' 4\pi r'^2} = 1 - \frac{3}{4} \left(\frac{r}{R} \right) + \frac{1}{16} \left(\frac{r}{R} \right)^2 \quad (4.30)$$

With the use of this form, $P(QR)$ may now be expressed as:

$$P(QR) = \frac{1}{V_p} \int_0^\infty dr 4\pi r^2 \frac{\sin(Qr)}{Qr} \left[1 - \frac{3}{4} \left(\frac{r}{R} \right) + \frac{1}{16} \left(\frac{r}{R} \right)^3 \right] \quad (4.31)$$

If we integrate this expression by parts three times in order to obtain the highest order in the high-Q expansion, we will end up with the Porod law:

$$P(QR) \sim -\frac{4\pi}{V_p} \frac{2\gamma'(0)}{Q^4} = \frac{S_p}{V_p R^2} \frac{3}{2Q^4 R} = \frac{3}{2R^3} \left(\frac{S_p}{V_p} \right) \frac{1}{Q^4} \quad (4.32)$$

with (S_p/V_p) being the surface to volume ratio. From this equation the scattering intensity can be expressed as $I(Q) = A/Q^4 + B$, with B being the constant background scattering. Now one can compute the background as the slope of the regression line on a plot IQ^4 vs Q^4 and subtract it.

4.6.7 Phase Behavior of *block*-Copolymers and Polymer Blends

Even though universally used techniques of deuterium labelling for neutron scattering research assume thermodynamical identity between the two long-lived hydrogen isotopes [178], it is well known that blends of block copolymers and homopolymers at a range of molecular weights, temperatures and concentrations will likely phase separate [178–184] while pure *block*-copolymers may undergo order-disorder transitions [185–188] that will disturb homogeneity of the samples and cause critical scattering. In brief, the effect behind these observations [179] is due to small differences in segment volume between deuterated and protonated macromolecules. In the case of nearly identical molecular weight ($N_D = N_H = N$), the critical degree of polymerization for an amorphous isotopic polymer blends is given by [179]:

$$N_c = 4k_B T_k / V(\Delta V/V)^2, \quad (4.33)$$

with k_B being the Boltzmann constant, T — upper critical solution temperature, V — average segment volume for the mixture and ΔV — the difference in volumes between protonated and deuterated segments. On the other hand, according to symmetric with respect to the two polymers version of the Flory-Huggins approximation to the mixing free energy [189], N_c is:

$$N_c = 2/\chi, \quad (4.34)$$

with χ being segment-segment interaction parameter, which may be approximated [190] as:

$$\chi = \frac{V_m}{RT} (\delta_H - \delta_D)^2 \quad (4.35)$$

with V_m being the segment molar volume, and δ_H and δ_D being the Hildebrand solubility parameters.

Since isotopic substitution changes the molecular volume of species, all polymer blends exhibit an interaction parameter, $\chi \propto T^{-1}$, greater than zero, with the limiting single-phase stability χ_s :

$$\chi_s = \frac{(N_D\phi)^{-1} + (N_H(1-\phi))^{-1}}{2} \quad (4.36)$$

where ϕ is the volume fraction of the deuterated species. Fig. 4.1 [181] shows the phase diagram for perprotonated and perdeuterated polybutadienes calculated according to the Flory-Huggins theory.

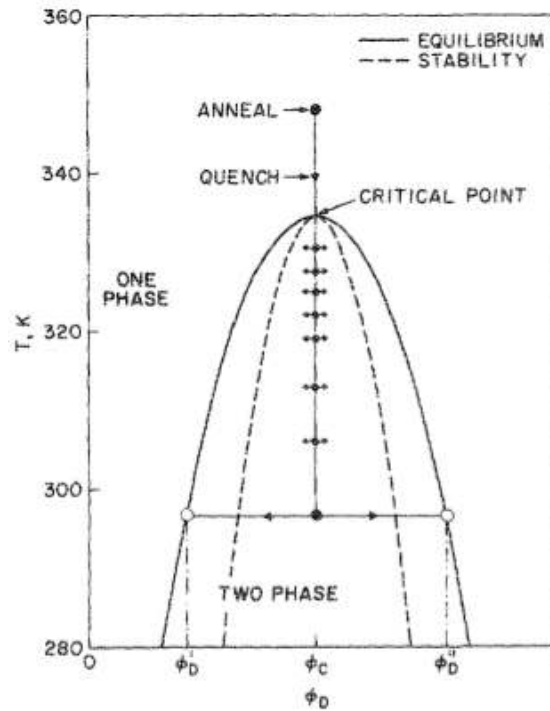


Figure 4.1: [181] Calculated phase diagram for $N_H = 3180$ and $N_D = 3550$, $T_c = 334.5\text{K}$ and $\chi = AT^{-1}$. Filled symbols indicate temperatures at which experiments were conducted, open symbols correspond to the equilibrium compositions at 298 K.

4.7 Neutron Facilities

The SANS measurements for these studies were performed at two neutron sites, namely SANS-I instrument at the Swiss Spallation Neutron Source (Paul Scherrer Institute, Villigen, Switzerland) and Quokka instrument at the Bragg Institute of the Australian Nuclear Science and Technology Organization (Lucas Heights, NSW, Australia). The descriptions of the instruments are taken from the papers, written by the instrument scientists [191, 192] or the online guides [193, 194] and are given thereinunder.

4.7.1 SANS-I

SANS-I instrument covers the q -range from $6 \cdot 10^{-3} \text{ nm}^{-1}$ to 5.4 nm^{-1} in a normal regime and up to 10.5 nm^{-1} with a vertically displaced detector, which gives a possibility to investigate structures from 1 to 400 nm. Neutrons are being produced at the spallation source, guided through a cold D_2 moderator to filter epithermal and higher energy neutrons, monochromized by a mechanical helical slot velocity selector (giving the resolution of the beam $\Delta\lambda/\lambda \approx 10\%$), hit a sample and then measured by an area sensitive ^3He detector, where the data is acquired in a 128×128 pixel memory corresponding to pixel sizes of $7.5 \times 7.5 \text{ mm}^2$, capable to work at 20 kHz count rate per pixel. The direct beam is blocked by a B_4C movable beamstop, the area of which is masked on the resulting scattering intensity map. The Fig. 4.2, which is taken from Paul Scherrer Institute website [195], shows the schematic of the used instrument, describing its components.

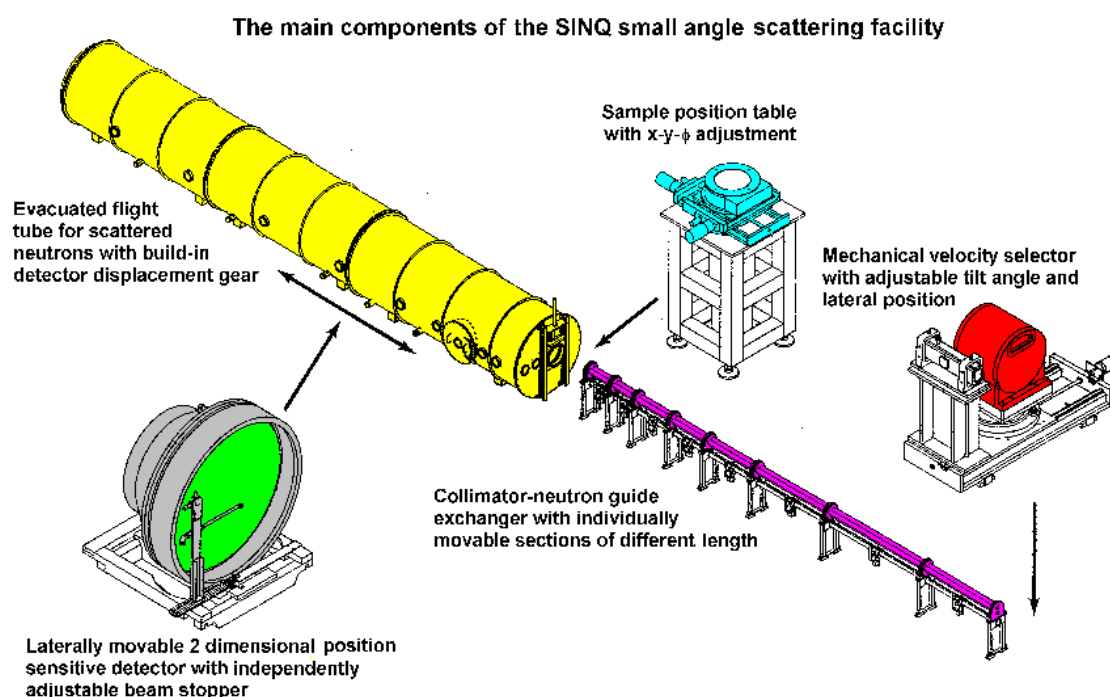


Figure 4.2: The main components of the SANS-I instrument.

4.7.2 Quokka

Quokka is the SANS instrument that receives cold neutrons from the high brilliance cold source of the open-pool Australian lightwater nuclear research reactor (OPAL, 20 megawatt). Neutrons are selected according to velocity with the use of a short rotor (25 cm) and can have the wavelength from 4.5 to 40 Å. Quokka so far has the largest high count rate 2D ^3He detector of all SANS instruments: 921600 mm^2 , 192×192 pixels, each pixel having the size of $5 \times 5 \text{ mm}$. The detector can be moved laterally by up to 450 mm and from 1.3 up to 20.1 m forth and back inside a vacuumed tube, giving an accessible q -range from $4 \cdot 10^{-3} \text{ Å}^{-1}$ (or even from

$6 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ \AA}^{-1}$ with focusing lens optics) to 0.7 \AA^{-1} with a conventional resolution $\Delta\lambda/\lambda = 7\text{-}18\%$. The Fig. 4.3, which is taken from the instrument description paper [192], shows the scheme of the instrument.

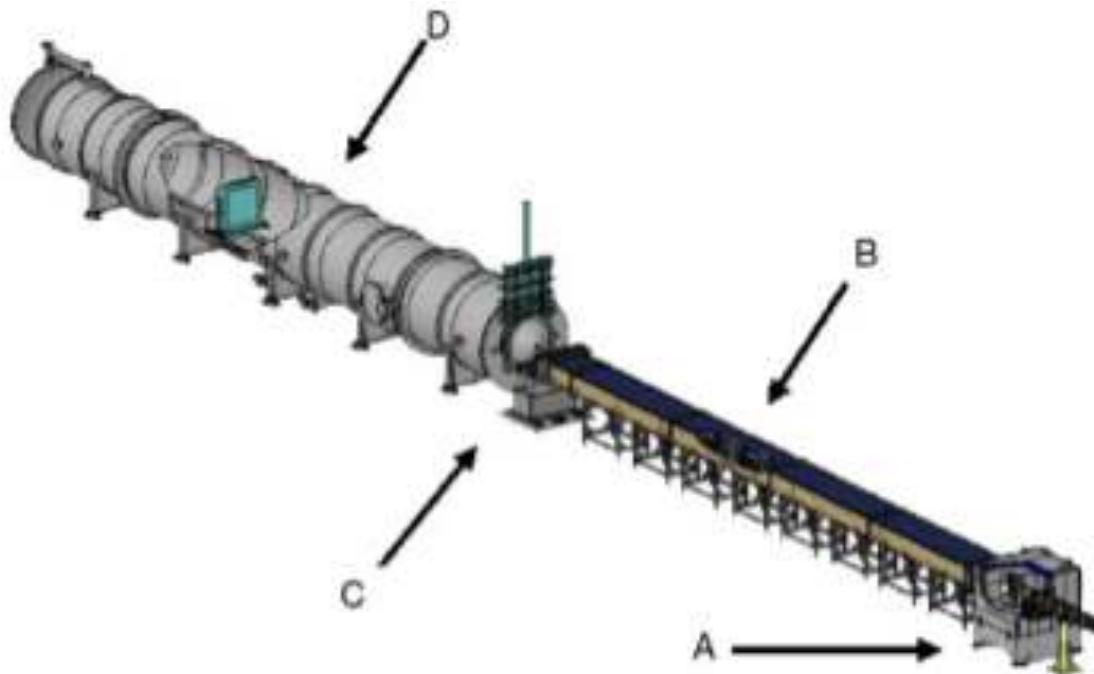


Figure 4.3: The scheme of Quokka SANS instrument at OPAL. A — a mechanical velocity selector, B — collimation system, C — sample area and sample environment, D — secondary flight path to detector in vacuum.

4.8 Data Acquisition

Samples of ‘frozen’ below the glass transition temperature polystyrenes were mounted on a conventional sample holder, as shown in Fig. 4.4.

Even though the volume of the samples [Fig. 4.4] in the beam was thoroughly calculated in order to correctly subtract the background coming from purely protonated polymers, additional correction based on the slopes of intensity versus scattering vector coming from 1D data was used, as described before [Sec. 4.6.6], since it is almost impossible to estimate the volume of thin rod-like samples subjected to a neutron beam precisely due to the irregular geometry of the samples (some part of the beam passes through no sample and the other part of the beam passes through the PS-filaments) and thereby the correct background to subtract.

For the case of SANS-I, the full q -range for the experiments ($5 \cdot 10^{-3} \text{ \AA}^{-1} - 0.25 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$) was recorded through 3 overlapping settings of the detector distances (2, 6 and 18 meters) with a neutron wavelength $\lambda = 6 \text{ \AA}$ at ambient temperature. For the case of Quokka, a similar q -range was obtained through 3 overlapping settings (2, 5 and 18 meters) with a neutron wavelength



Figure 4.4: Mounted samples.

$\lambda = 5 \text{ \AA}$ at room temperature. All measurements were done until the total count of at least 2 million neutrons.

4.9 Data Treatment

Initial data treatment was done with the use of either BerSANS software package from HMI Berlin (Germany) or the Quokka macros for Igor Pro [196] (NIST Center for Neutron Research, Gaithersburg, MD, USA). Each sample at each detector distance was handled with the following algorithm:

- The area around the beamstop and 1-2 pixels at the edges of the detector is masked;
- The beam center value is corrected according to the one found from the empty beam measurements;
- The scattering pattern is corrected with respect to empty beam radiation;
- The scattering pattern is corrected with respect to each pixel of the detector efficiency with the help of incoherent H_2O scattering;

- The scattering pattern is corrected with respect to the same volume of background — fully protonated polystyrene.

4.10 *Block*-PSD-*block*-PSH 3-Arm Star Small-Angle Neutron Scattering Pattern

Before the experiments, we expected to see the correlation between the end-blocks of the stars, with the idea that at the highest stretch rate, two arms will fall into one tube. This idea is shown in Fig. 4.5.

But during this work, we unexpectedly found coherent intensity peaks in the direction, which is perpendicular, and not parallel to the stretch. Inability to attribute these peaks to chains correlations, voids, impurities and degraded catalyst residues inspires an in-depth re-search with these types of samples. The two-dimensional scattering data is shown in Fig. 4.6.

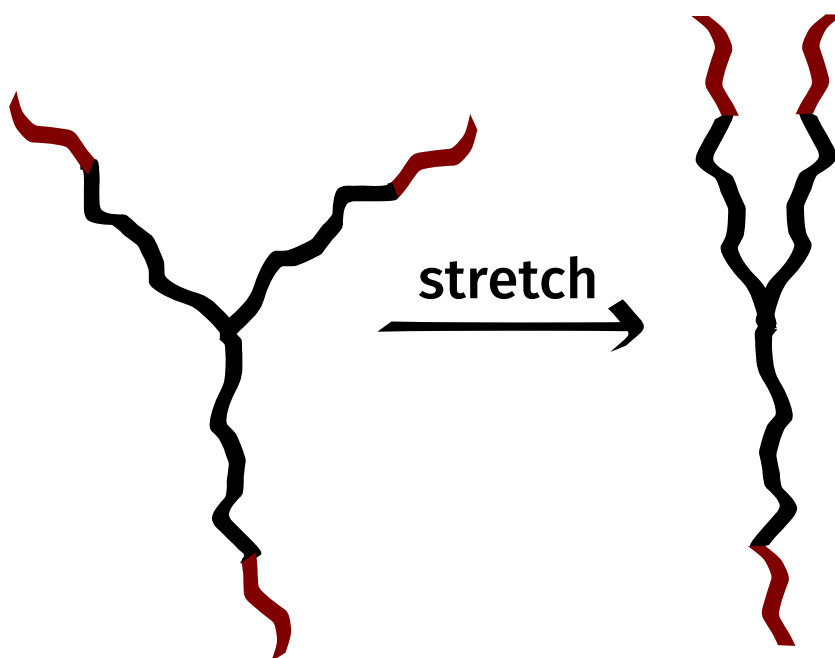


Figure 4.5: Stretching of end-labeled polymer stars.

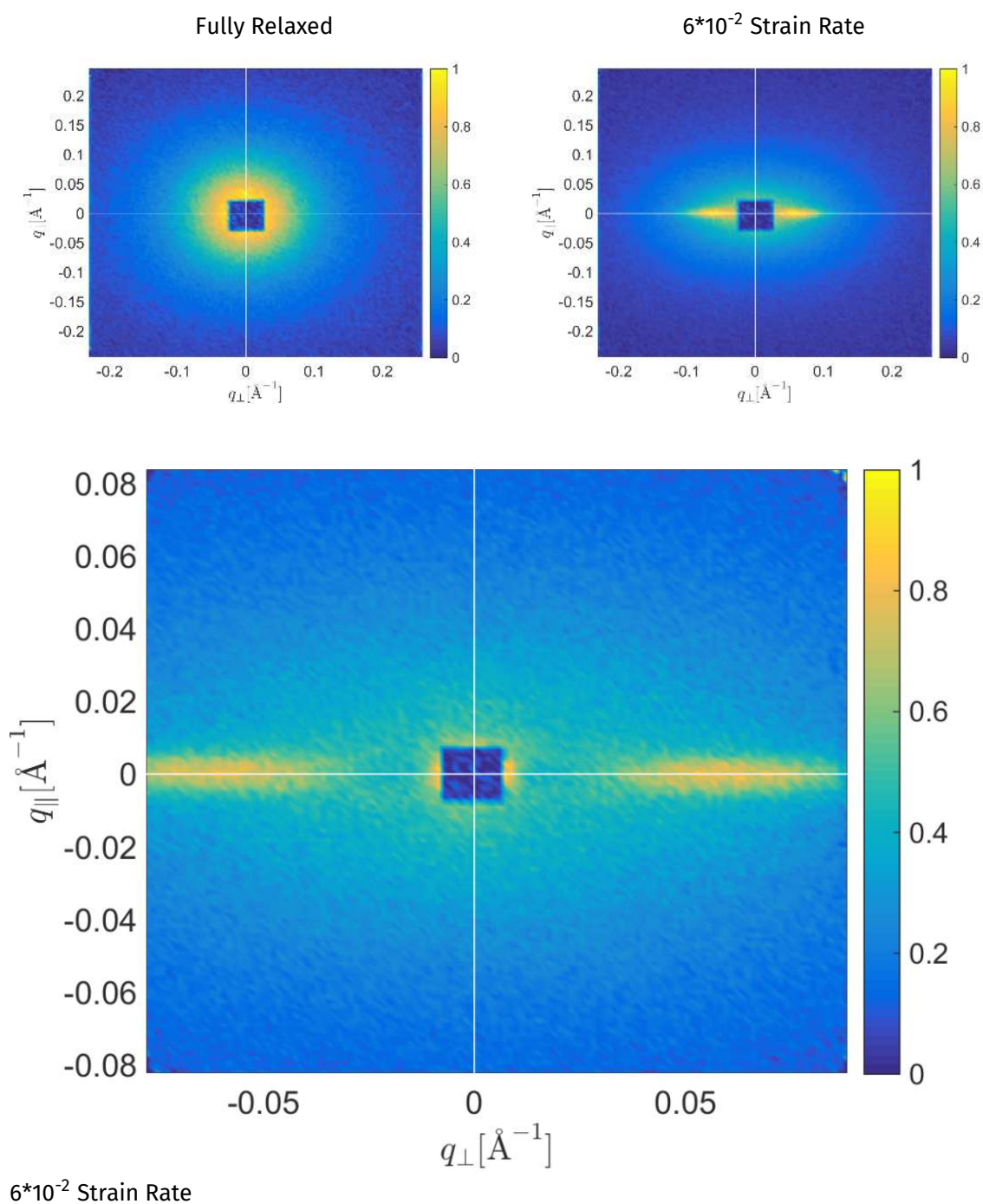


Figure 4.6: Two-dimensional scattering data of *block*-PSD-*block*-PSH 3-arm star polymer in fully relaxed and a stretched state, recorded at two detector distances: 2 (top) and 6 (bottom, stretched only) meters.

4.11 Data Fitting

The data fitting to a large extent was done together with and by prof. Jacob J.K. Kirkensgaard, as it was mentioned in Acknowledgements section.

SANS experiments provide an intensity distribution in reciprocal space and considerable effort has to be invested in the data analysis in order to obtain the corresponding real space structures [197]. This section presents fitting procedures, based on least-squares minimization between a model and a dataset, providing crucial information of radii of gyration in the directions parallel and perpendicular to the flow field. Sections 4.11.1, 4.11.3 and 4.11.4 contain the analytically calculated form factors which were used as the fitting routines for the fully relaxed polymers while Sec. 4.11.2 describes the case of stretched polymer melts.

4.11.1 Linear Polymers with Gaussian Statistics

Debye [198] analytically found the expression for the form factors of flexible polymers that obey Gaussian statistics:

$$P(q) = \frac{2 [\exp(-u) + u - 1]}{u^2} \quad (4.37)$$

with $u = \langle R_g^2 \rangle q^2$, where $\langle R_g^2 \rangle$ is the ensemble average radius of gyration squared: $\langle R_g^2 \rangle = \frac{Lb}{6}$, and L being the contour length, while b is the statistical segment length.

```
1 function out = debye(qX,qZ,rgX,rgZ)
2 x2=(qZ.*rgZ).^2+(qX.*rgX).^2;
3 out = 2*(exp(-x2) + x2 - 1)./x2.^2;
```

Listing 4.1: Debye function as used in Matlab.

The form factor may be sometimes used [199] to fit anisotropic data from stretched polymers using $u = [q_{\parallel} R_{g\parallel}]^2 + [q_{\perp} R_{g\perp}]^2$, with $R_{g\parallel}$ and $R_{g\perp}$ being the radii of gyration in the directions parallel and perpendicular to the flow field. This assumes the ellipticity of the iso-intensity contour lines in SANS scattering patterns, with $R_{g\parallel} = \lambda_{\parallel} R_{g0}$ and $R_{g\perp} = \lambda_{\perp} R_{g0}$.

The computer code on Listing 4.1 minimizes the difference between the model and the data fit with the use of the Debye function translated to a Matlab script.

The data for radii of gyrations for fully relaxed samples extracted during the fitting are then also used to check the operability of the computer code made for more advanced theories described in Sec. 4.11.2. An example of datasets together with fitted patterns is shown in Fig. 4.7. The detailed description of the samples and scattering patterns for these fits is given in Appendix C.

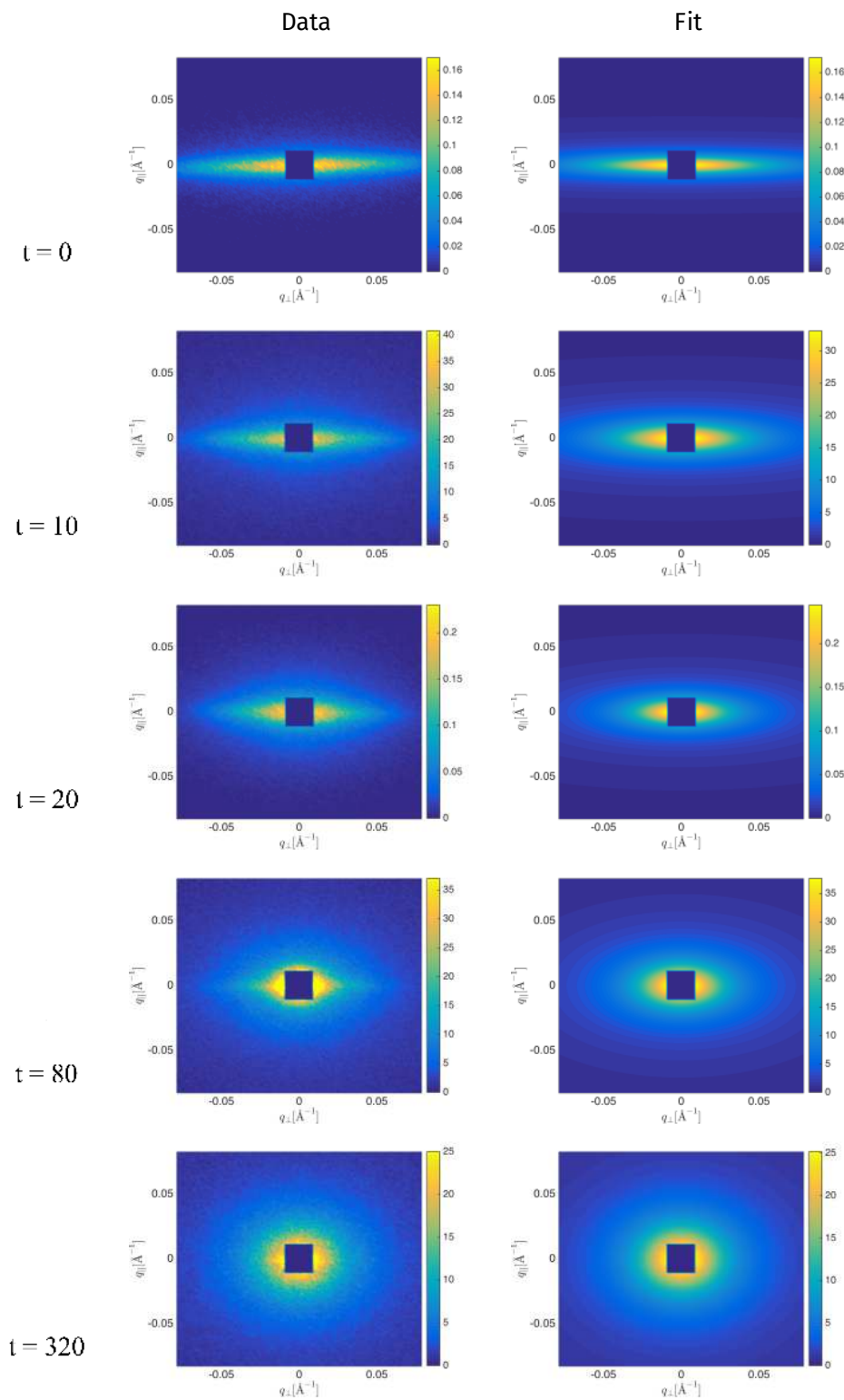


Figure 4.7: Two-dimensional scattering data and accompanying 2D Debye fits for relaxation series of a polymer melt consisting of short (95 kg/mol) and long (545 kg/mol) polystyrene chains.

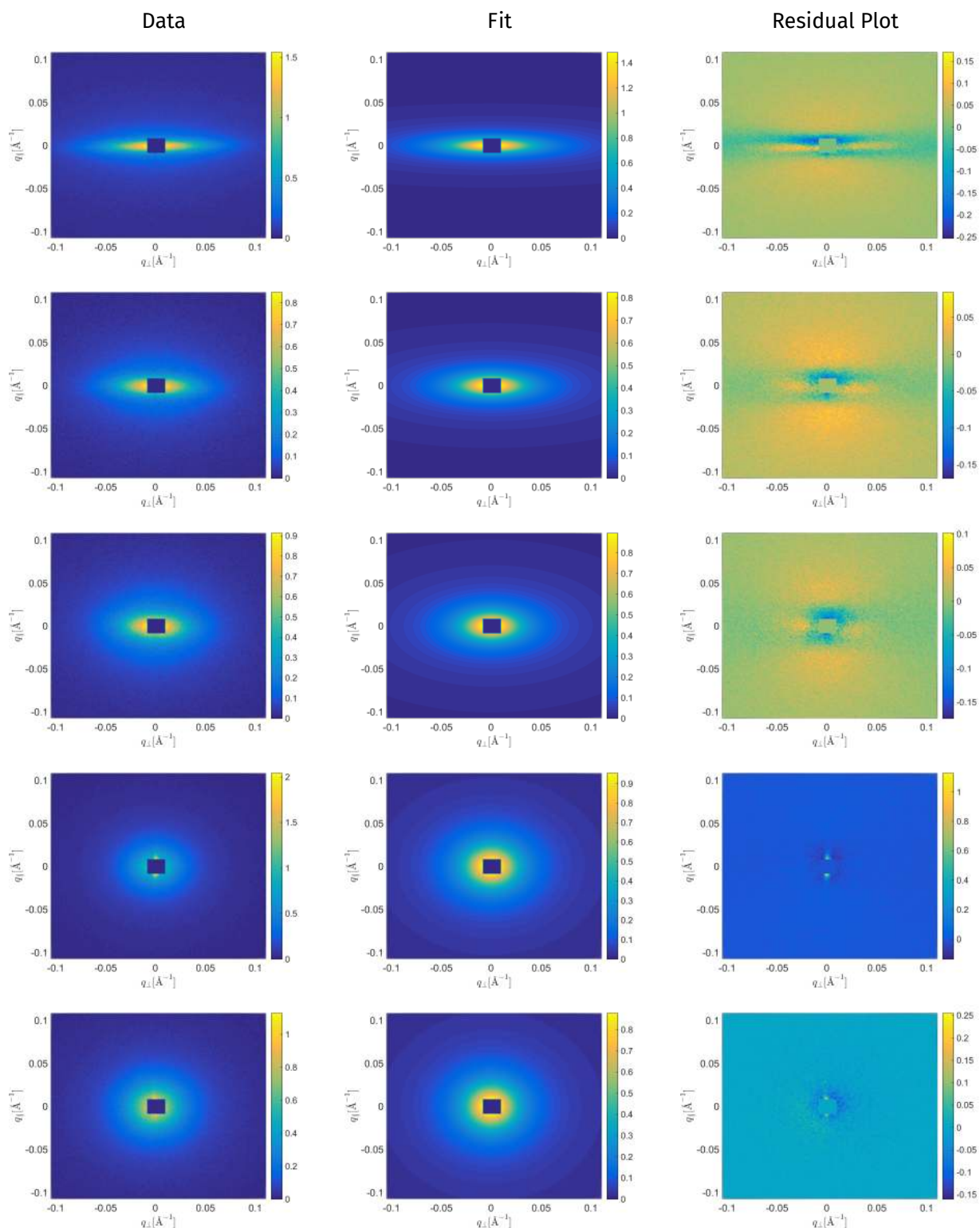


Figure 4.8: Two-dimensional scattering data accompanying 2D Debye fits and residual plots for relaxation series of a polymer blend consisting of short (95 kg/mol — perprotonated, 86 kg/mol — perdeuterated) polystyrene chains. The series consist of stretched polymers, polymers that were relaxed for 10, 20, 80, 320 seconds as shown on consecutive lines respectively.

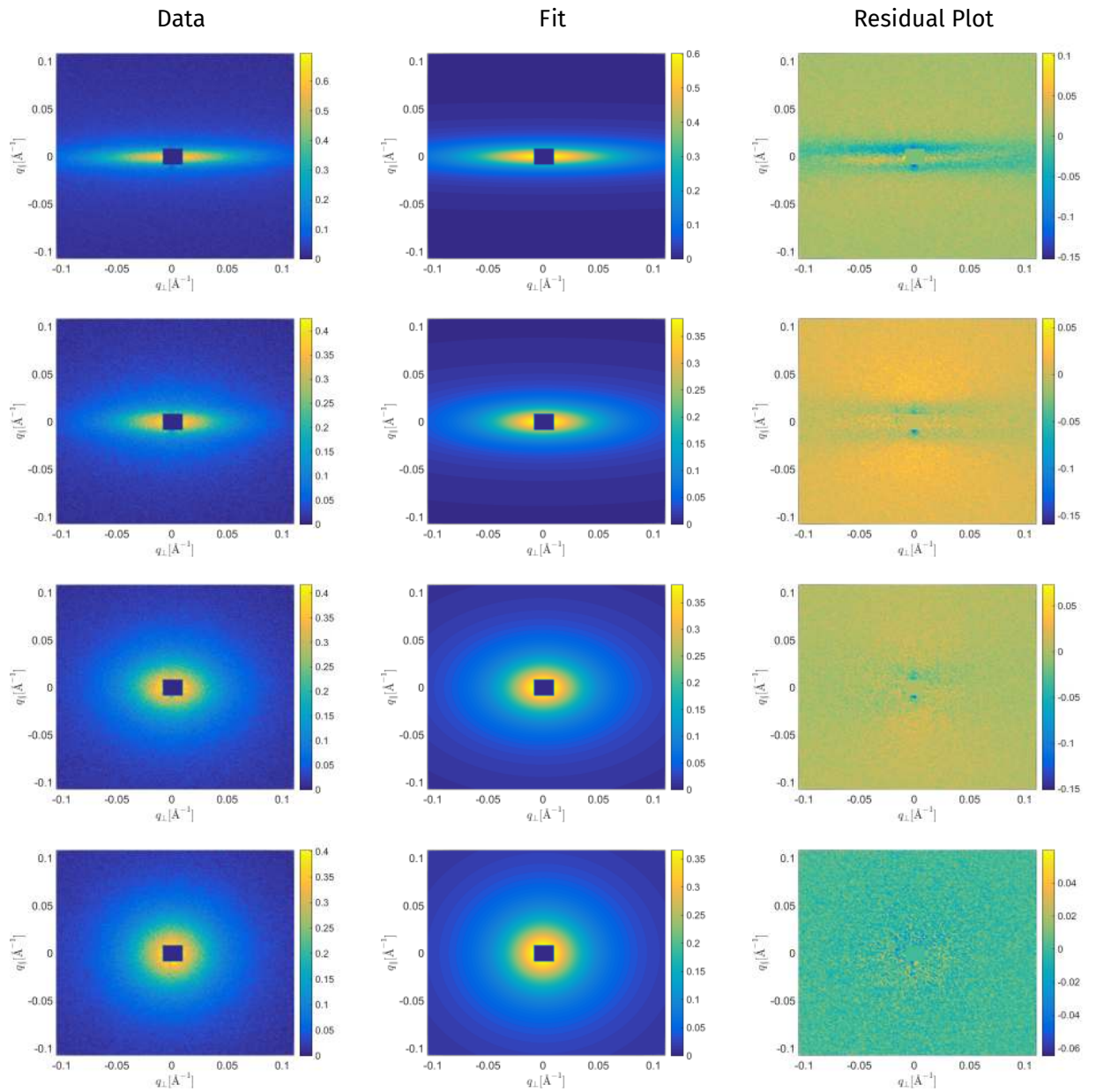


Figure 4.9: Two-dimensional scattering data accompanying 2D Debye fits and residual plots for relaxation series of a polymer melt consisting of short (95 kg/mol) and a *block*-copolymer with deuterated end polystyrene samples. The series consist of strain rates stretched at $6 \cdot 10^{-2}$, $6 \cdot 10^{-3}$, $6 \cdot 10^{-4}$ and a fully relaxed sample, as shown on consecutive lines respectively.

No regression analysis was done to figure out to which extent the Debye model can accurately predict stretched polymer scattering data, however the presented plots are believed to be satisfactory since the residual plots have less than 5% difference between the fit and the model if the points near the beamstop are disregarded, which means that statistical significance of the data fit to the model is less than 5%.

4.11.2 Dangling Ends Model

The inability of the Debye fits to take the scattering contributions from partially relaxed polymer chains that work as a solvent for the strained macromolecules into account necessitates to take the advantage of the ‘dangling ends’ model (DEM) by Read and McLeish [40]. The model was originally developed for the case of crosslinked polyisoprene networks and is a modified Warner-Edwards model (WEM) [200] with consideration for relaxing macromolecular ‘tails’. The model solves ‘lozenge’ (also called ‘diamond’) shapes in contour plots of SANS patterns with the use of WEM for the central stretched region represented by η_q :

$$\eta_q(x, x') = \sum_{\mu} Q_{\mu}^2 \lambda_{\mu}^2 |x - x'| + Q_{\mu}^2 (1 - \lambda_{\mu}^2) \frac{d_{\mu}^2}{2\sqrt{6}R_g^2} \left[1 - \exp \left[\frac{2\sqrt{6}R_g^2 |x - x'|}{d_{\mu}^2} \right] \right] \quad (4.38)$$

and with the help of Gaussian chain statistics represented by κ_q for the case of either relaxed ‘tails’ of a polymer chain or isotropic material remained undeformed by the flow field:

$$\kappa_q(x, x') = \sum_{\mu} Q_{\mu} |x - x'| \quad (4.39)$$

The index μ represents the cartesian directions, $\mu = (x, y, z)$, $Q_{\mu} = q_{\mu} R_g$ being a normalized wave vector, while d_{μ} is the tube diameter given by

$$d_{\mu} = d_0 \lambda_{\mu}^{\nu} \quad (4.40)$$

with λ_{μ} being the macroscopic strain ratio in the direction μ . The parameter ν represents the tube potential, that can be either isotropic ($\nu = 0$) or deformed ($\nu = 1/2$). The R_g value is calculated with the Debye or Benoit fits from a fully relaxed sample and the perpendicular strain ratios are related to λ_z as $\lambda_x = \lambda_y = 1/\sqrt{\lambda_z}$.

The model introduces the concept of ‘dangling ends’, denoted as a fraction f of the total chain being relaxed (Gaussian), and suggests a mechanism of stress relaxation in entangled macromolecules from an end of a structure to its center. The contour length variables for monomeric units l, l' along the chain are defined as $x = l/N$ and $x' = l'/N$, while the total scattering function is represented by

$$S(\mathbf{q}) = 2 \int_0^1 \int_0^x dx' \exp [-G_q(x, x')] \quad (4.41)$$

With $G_q(x, x')$ being

$$G_q(x, x') = \begin{cases} \kappa_q(x, x') & \{x, x'\} \leq f \\ \kappa_q(f, x') + \eta_q(x, f) & f < x \leq 1 - f, x' \leq f \\ \kappa_q(f, x') + \eta_q(1 - f, f) & 1 - f < x, x' \leq f \\ \quad + \kappa_q(x, 1 - f) & \\ \eta_q(x, x') & f < \{x, x'\} \leq 1 - f \\ \eta_q(1 - f, x') + \kappa_q(x, 1 - f) & 1 - f < x, f < x' \leq 1 - f \\ \kappa_q(x, x') & 1 - f < \{x, x'\} \end{cases}$$

The six cases of the functions describe all the possible theoretical positions in a macromolecule:

- the first case represents two theoretical positions, both in the first end;
- the second — one in the first end, one in the central part;
- the third — one in each end;
- the fourth — both in the central part;
- the fifth — one in the second end, one in the central part;
- the sixth — both in the second end.

DEM was used for the case of two polymer blends: first, containing short (86 kg/mol) PSD in the matrix of short (95 kg/mol) PSH, and the second — short (86 kg/mol) PSD in the matrix of long (545 kg/mol) PSH.

The fits to the data are done employing a custom code written in Matlab (The MathWorks Inc., MA, USA) and the general overview of the fitting routine is given onwards.

First, reduced dataset is plotted and the data is checked for consistency: the areas around the beamstop and detector edges should be masked, dataset should be centered around zero.

```
1 if isempty(gcp('nocreate'));
2   myCluster=parcluster('local');
3   NW=myCluster.NumWorkers;
4   parpool(myCluster,NW);
5 end;
```

Listing 4.2: Code to implement the parallel computing.

Fitting the theory to experimental scattering patterns is a computationally heavy task, which is why all the fitting procedures were parallelized to increase the speed of the fitting by the factor of the amount of processor cores, which is shown on the Lst. 4.2. This code checks whether a parallel pool is already created and starts one if not. Using this code allows execution of parallelized numerical algorithm operators like **parfor** and **spmd**.

Afterwards, constants should be declared. We define a vector of q-values for each detector distance, where if a pixel on a detector has this q-value, it will be converted to a point of a contour that will be fitted. Also the boundary conditions are declared, since the fitting procedure will only minimize the difference between the model and the experimental datasets and it is not necessarily guaranteed that the output of the fitting will have physical meaning. The boundary conditions have the next constraints: fraction of the relaxed chains f , radius of gyration of a macromolecule in a direction that is perpendicular to the stretch $R_{g\parallel}$ of each next

sample cannot be smaller than a value from a previous sample in a row of samples relaxing from the highest stretch rate to a fully relaxed state.

Further comes a parallel loop to fit data from each sample. It takes a dataset, all the elements of which are representing the neutron counts, checks it and all the values that are below zero or not numbers are turned into zeros. Next, it imports auxiliary information of a beamtime, instrument, distance from a sample to a detector, sample name, sample description and neutron wavelength and creates a coordinate grid in values of scattering vector q (Lst. 4.3) for the case of beamtimes at Paul Scherrer Institute because they are not created automatically during the scattering experiment on SANS-I.

```

1 for ii = 1:128;
2     thetax = 0.5*atan((ii-Cx)*pixelsize/SD);
3     thetay = 0.5*atan((ii-Cy)*pixelsize/SD);
4     Qx(ii) = (4*pi/lambda)*sin(thetax);
5     Qy(ii) = (4*pi/lambda)*sin(thetay);
6 end;
```

Listing 4.3: Create a coordinate grid in units of q .

The origin in the coordinate grid is centered according to the values obtained at the scattering instrument (C_x and C_y); SD here is the distance from a sample to a detector, λ is a neutron wavelength and the *pixelsize* is a size of an ^3He cell of the detector on SANS-I. Next a script makes a contour plot of an intensity matrix to give an isoline of the matrix at the certain chosen level. Further comes the fitting procedure. It minimizes the difference between a model and a dataset in terms of least-square routine with the use of an auxiliary Matlab function `fminsearch` [201]. After the fitting, a full scattering pattern is rebuilt from the model parameters and compared with the recorded one and the difference is mapped to a picture which is checked for discrepancies. Fitting with DEM provides essential information not only on $R_{g\parallel}$ and $R_{g\perp}$, but the values of relaxed chains f and tube diameter, which is an additional piece of information to establish the kinetics of flow.

4.11.3 Star Polymers with Gaussian Statistics

Benoit [202] found the expression for the star polymers with Gaussian statistics:

$$P(q) = \frac{2}{f\nu^2} \left[\nu - [1 - \exp(-\nu)] + \frac{f-1}{2} [1 - \exp(-\nu)]^2 \right] \quad (4.42)$$

with $\nu = \frac{u^2 f}{3f-2}$, and $u^2 = \langle R_g^2 \rangle q^2$, where $\langle R_g^2 \rangle$ is the ensemble average radius of gyration squared of an arm and f stands for the number of arms in a star.

4.11.4 Polydisperse Star Polymers with Gaussian Statistics

Burchard [203] calculated the form factor for star polymers that are polydisperse in a Schulz-Flory sense:

$$P(q) = \frac{1 + u^2/(3f)}{(1 + u^2(f+1)/(6f))^2} \quad (4.43)$$

where $u^2 = \langle R_g^2 \rangle_z q^2$ and $\langle R_g^2 \rangle_z$ is the z -average radius of gyration squared of an arm; f stands for the number of arms in a star.

CHAPTER 5

Summary

The modified tube model fails to describe rheological behavior of non-Newtonian fluids out of small deformation rates. The clear understanding of the rheology of complex fluids necessitates the analytical description of processes taking place during strong flows, which may be further added to the groundwork of the Doi-Edwards-de Gennes model. This work provided such relevant experimental data on uniaxial deformation of melts of either blends of linear polymers or star polymers.

5.1 Work Overview

During this work considerable knowledge on model polymer syntheses and polymer stability was gained and connected to the rheological data of the systems mentioned. The synthetic part of this PhD thesis was done jointly with Prof. K. Almdal and consisted of living anionic polymerizations aimed to produce narrowly distributed linear and 3-arm stars polystyrenes, as well as 3-arm *block*-PSD-*block*-PSH and *block*-PSH-*block*-Oligobutadiene stars in a certain range of molecular weights. The star synthesis was made by the means of living anionic polymerization technique resulting in narrowly distributed polymers that are suitable for extensional rheology studies with the help of FSR. The developed synthetic design of the star polymers was specifically directed to produce narrowly polydispersed short polystyrene blocks in polar solvents and to avoid the step of converting polystyrenyllithium to *block*-PSH-*block*-PB, since in the latter case the resulting star polymers are prone to thermal degradation at the starlinking point during typical rheological experiments, such as filament stretching.

The rheological part was done jointly with Prof. O. Hassager and Dr. Q. Huang and consists of uniaxial elongation experiments on either *block*-PSH-*block*-PSD 3-arm stars or blends of randomly distributed star copolymers made of styrene-*d*8 and styrene that were carried out with the help of the filament stretching rheometer at DTU. This data has yet to be connected with the SANS patterns, while the rheological description of the linear samples of this research that was done by Dr. L. Hengeller, Dr. Q. Huang and Prof. O. Hassager showed that after uniaxial extension which was followed by stress relaxation experiments of bidisperse polymer blends (made of 95K and 545K PS) the stress in the blend is carried mostly by the long-chain component.

The neutron scattering part was done jointly with J.J.K. Kirkensgaard and K. Mortensen and consisted of SANS experiments at the OPAL reactor and the spallation source at PSI along with all the data treatment procedures and programming of the fitting scripts for the experimental data.

The full scientific cycle of synthesis — rheology — neutron scattering — fitting for linear macromolecules has shown evidence of nematic effects and strain coupling in entangled polymer melts under strong flow, where the presence of long chains delays short chain relaxation by a factor of ~4 and increases their initial stretch. This is a substantial result that increases

our knowledge in the field of polymer physics and we believe it may be mathematically added to the theories of molecular rheology helping to describe elongational processes more thoroughly.

5.2 Future Work

Future synthetic work will most likely focus on the POM-POM *block*-copolymers synthesis employing first generation iterative methodology coupling agents, such as DPEBr1 and DPEBr3 that can be purified with the aid of the preparative HPLC method on C18 inverted phase columns using acetonitrile/water solvent gradient.

Further rheological characterization will employ large deformations of specifically designed partly deuterated polymer samples up to the highest feasible by the FSR Hencky strain rate followed by stress relaxation in order to unravel large strain polymer dynamics in the nonlinear regime.

This thesis contains up-to-date progress situation in the SANS area which is not finished and future studies are needed to explain intensity peaks in the scattering pattern, particularly using series of the *block*-copolymers, relaxed after an uniaxial flow situation. At the point of the submission of this thesis, only linear polymer blends have been fully characterized and described in the papers attached in Appendices, while the data on star polymers still needs contemplation and time to articulate it in new research papers.

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APPENDIX **A**

Model Polystyrene Symmetric 3-Arm Star Synthesis for Rheological Studies

Model Polysperme Copolymers: A New New Outlook for Biodegradable Polymers

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Transparating Polymers

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We present a new synthesis of high molecular weight polysperme copolymers that can be used by various polymerization techniques that are suitable for commercial technology scales. The synthesis is done involving the step of converting polyspermeolactones to polysperme diols oligomerolactones. We show that if a diol oligomerolactone diol is present then the resulting copolymers are given in dependence of the reacting group during typical technology experiments, such as filament extruding, injection or compression molding and extrusion blowmolding (EBM).

Research highlights

- The synthesis of copolymers can be adapted highly to the demands of the user.
- Biodegradable copolymers diols within a polymer diols during commercial technology scales.
- Various polysperme high molecular weight diols in EBM can be made in EBM.

Keywords: Polysperme Polyspermeolactones, the Polysperme, Polysperme copolymers, Filament extruding, Blowing

5. Introduction

The aim is a specific macromolecular architecture of polymers, in which several linear polymers are linked together by one of them with in a common center, resulting a structure which is particularly interesting because it allows an easier continuous change of properties from that of a flexible linear polymer to a spherical colloidal particle with very well given dimensions (1). The target polymers are linear copolymers containing blocks of two major biodegradable polymers (2).

In general, our polymers are synthesized with the use of multifunctional coupling agents with a bifunctional compound (3), trimethylene (4), derivatives of dihydroxyketones (5), dihydroxyacetophenones (6,7) or others. For the case of bifunctional compounds, it is well established, that the properties of the high molecular weight polymers can have the stability of polymerization is strongly coupled connection with a continuous quantity of bifunctional containing their structure per volume weight. According to Brown and Fisher (8), coupling reactions of living chains in fusion state in benzene with prior addition is essential the aggregation of the chains is flexible in the molecular mass range up to 40 kg/mol. The lack of reacting for the case of higher molecular weight can can be avoided by increasing the equilibrium constant in the dihydroxyketones (9,10), which can react with the bifunctional compound of multifunctional (11). On the other hand, the most likely is when with the use of a polymer can have the flexible bond in the oligoethers and can be easily attacked by radicals or ions, which is critical for the case of industrial storage media, where degradation may occur (12). Our polymers with others can that "have used" during a chemical reacting, however, experiments have been previously reported (13).

In this paper we present an easy synthesis involving the use of oligoethers under a water system polymers with high molecular weight suitable for high temperature media.

2. Experimental Section

2.1. Synthesis and Characterization

All linear polymer blocks were synthesized with the use of the method of living cationic polymerization according to the detailed procedure by Tobols et al. (14). Reaction was carried out in freshly distilled monohydroxy (1500), a detailed volume of anhydrous in benzene was used in the column. The synthesis consisted of two steps: first, linear polymer

growth curve at 100°C with the use of a cooling TMR bath and was left to warm up to 100°C, giving a narrow polydispersity for the low molecular weight fractions at 100°C. The high peak was broad. The low molecular weight at 100°C with polydispersities in the molecular mass of 10. The reason of being wider peak is most likely of molecular weight by the formation of "linear chain" was associated with a degree 10% solution of 100°C at 100°C. The cooling polymer solution was the lowest.

[illegible]

Myosin fragments was done with release in the solvent cell device in the conventional manner, sealed around fragments, with the last three fragments from a 100% solution. Typically, a polymer was dissolved in solvent cell, while during the release of new solvent was added until the solution was sealed. Then the solution was heated in order to dissolve the polymer and left in slowly cool through the required phase, which was collected.

The extracted virus preparations were done with the use of RNeasy spintray columns (Qiagen). The samples were first loaded in a spintray design that has 20 columns at 100% water content. Then, during 10 minutes the samples were processed at 100%, allowed to cool down at 100% and incubated at a flow rate of 100%. The procedure followed is well established according to Wang et al.

5 Results and discussion

Five polypropylene (PP) samples made of either regular or hyperbranched (HB) with or without functional end-groups were synthesized.

Table 1 summarizes the sample weight, molecular weight and the polydispersity values of the samples.

Sample	Wt. (g/mol)	MW	Polydispersity (MWD)
PP1	20	1.1	2
PP1-HB + PEG chain	20	1.1	100
PP1-HB + PEG chain	100	1.1	2
PP1-HB	20	1.1	100

Table 1.

Figure S10 for the case of HB1 represents a plot of a concentration gradient during the addition of several molecules which led to a reaction rate gradient and hence higher polydispersity. A lower molecular weight polypropylene is obtained when the coupling reaction for a star formation, however, the other hand, causes an increase of polydispersity. If any polydispersity in the concentration of monomer is obtained in general due to an efficient mixing.

The use of functional end groups and polypropylene monomers is conditioned by the further weight-weight coupling experiments to control molecular interaction and monitoring of any segments during the flow.

5 Polymer Degradation During the Functional Flowing Condition

The chemical degradation of polymers with the use of HB is a time-consuming procedure, especially for a high-molecular weight sample, even if through a defined processing procedure decreases the reaction time. The flow experiment because of a stopped-flow sample and longer time to fully enter a sample before the experiment. Even though the reaction is irreversible may lead to the decreased experimental time, the higher level of the degradation of an experiment on the HB is defined by the degradation, at which sample starts to degrade. On the other hand, the lower level of end degradation on a path is defined by the glass-based reaction degradation. Under these boundary conditions, a well-controlled procedure was

experimentally. The size exclusion chromatograms show the size of oligomers only for the case of the polymer containing an oligomeric block.

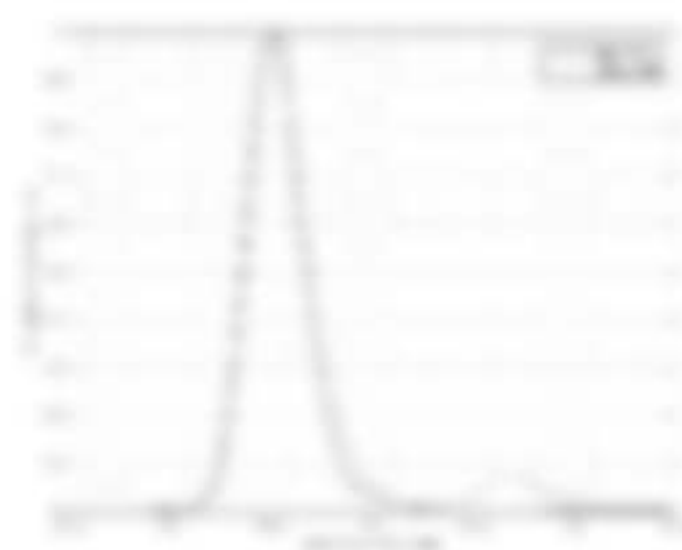


Figure 1. SEC of the polymer with oligomeric block before and after eluted from the column containing experiment.

5. Conclusion

The methodology of using PEG as the solvent for various polymerization and further long-term coupling have shown an effective way to synthesize stable polypeptide stars, suitable for intracellular delivery studies. We give a general strategy to synthesize a series of interesting polymers of a target polymer in order to increase the yield of a coupling reaction, since it both is a low-molecular-weight star and the size was that is under cellular drug uptake experiment studies. Thus, this from biological experiments observed with the use of suitable can should be accelerated.

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APPENDIX **B**

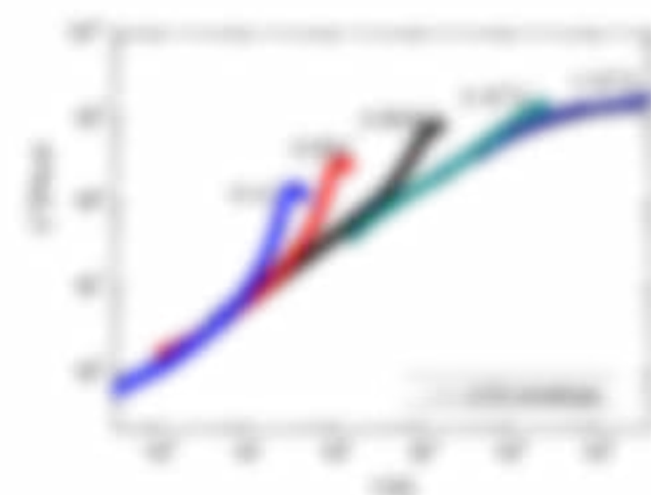
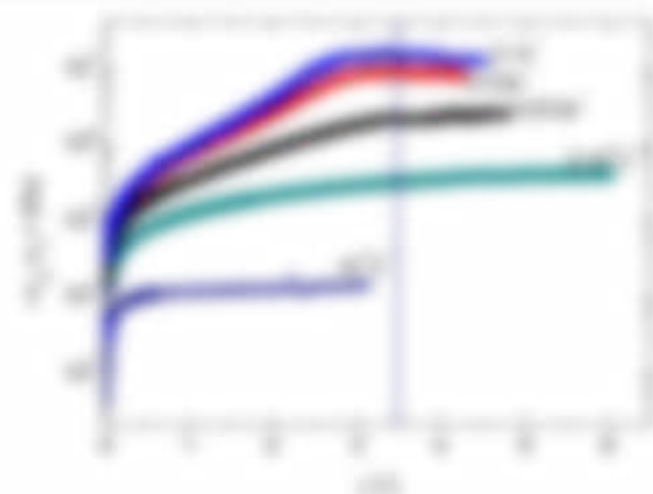
Stress relaxation of bi-disperse polystyrene melts : Exploring the interactions between long and short chains in non-linear rheology

Table 1 Boundary conditions and flow parameters for numerical simulation

x (m)	u (m/s)	v (m/s)	w (m/s)	T (K)
$x = 0$	$u = 0$	$v = 0$	$w = 0$	$T = 300$
$x = 1$	$u = 1$	$v = 0$	$w = 0$	$T = 300$
$y = 0$	$u = 0$	$v = 0$	$w = 0$	$T = 300$
$y = 1$	$u = 0$	$v = 0$	$w = 0$	$T = 300$
$z = 0$	$u = 0$	$v = 0$	$w = 0$	$T = 300$
$z = 1$	$u = 0$	$v = 0$	$w = 0$	$T = 300$

value of the velocity vector. Results for the numerical simulation are shown in Fig. 2. The velocity vector field is shown in the top left corner of the figure. The velocity vector field is shown in the top left corner of the figure. The velocity vector field is shown in the top left corner of the figure.

Figure 2 shows the velocity vector field and the temperature distribution in the channel. The velocity vector field is shown in the top left corner of the figure. The temperature distribution is shown in the bottom right corner of the figure. The velocity vector field is shown in the top left corner of the figure. The temperature distribution is shown in the bottom right corner of the figure.


Fig. 2 Velocity vector field and temperature distribution in the channel. The velocity vector field is shown in the top left corner of the figure. The temperature distribution is shown in the bottom right corner of the figure.

Fig. 3 Temperature distribution in the channel. The temperature distribution is shown in the bottom right corner of the figure.

Results show that the flow is highly turbulent in the channel. The velocity vector field is shown in the top left corner of the figure. The temperature distribution is shown in the bottom right corner of the figure. The velocity vector field is shown in the top left corner of the figure. The temperature distribution is shown in the bottom right corner of the figure.

Numerical Simulation Results

The numerical simulation results are shown in the top left corner of the figure. The velocity vector field is shown in the top left corner of the figure. The temperature distribution is shown in the bottom right corner of the figure.

The numerical simulation results are shown in the top left corner of the figure. The velocity vector field is shown in the top left corner of the figure. The temperature distribution is shown in the bottom right corner of the figure.

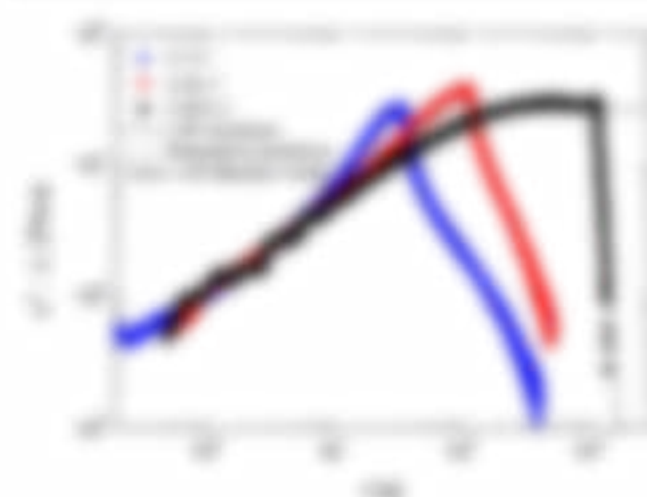


Fig. 3. Numerical solution of the system (1)-(4) for the case of a single input. The solid black line represents the solution, the dashed blue line represents the solution, and the dashed red line represents the solution.

Fig. 3. The numerical solution of the system (1)-(4) for the case of a single input. The solid black line represents the solution, the dashed blue line represents the solution, and the dashed red line represents the solution. The curves start at (0,0) and increase, with the solid black line reaching the highest value of approximately 0.8 at $t=10$.

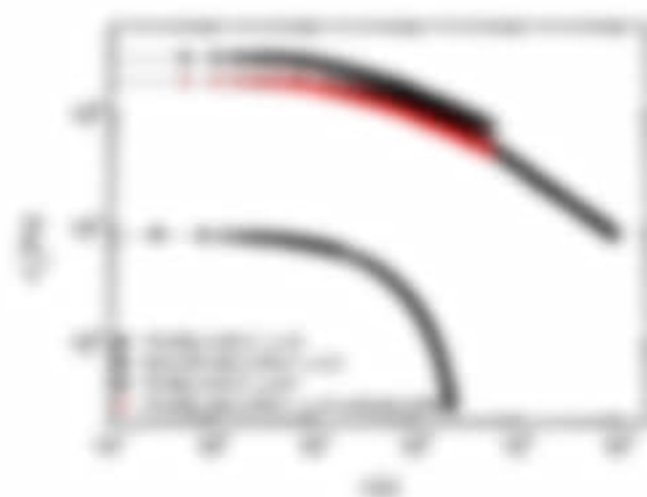


Fig. 4. Numerical solution of the system (1)-(4) for the case of a single input. The solid black line represents the solution, the dashed blue line represents the solution, and the dashed red line represents the solution.

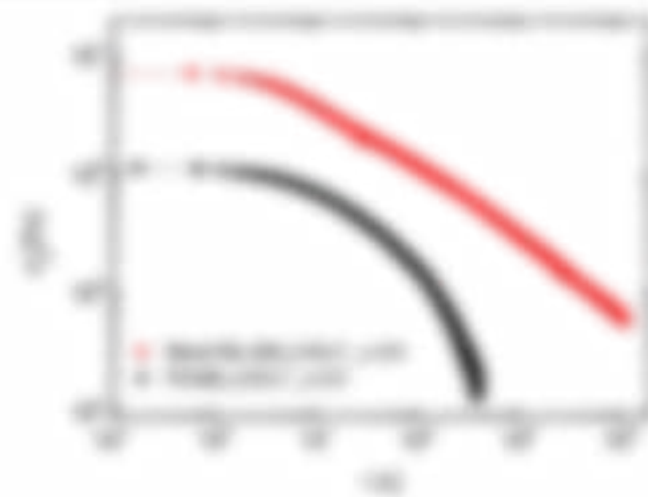


Fig. 5. Numerical solution of the system (1)-(4) for the case of a single input. The solid black line represents the solution, the dashed blue line represents the solution, and the dashed red line represents the solution.

Fig. 5. The numerical solution of the system (1)-(4) for the case of a single input. The solid black line represents the solution, the dashed blue line represents the solution, and the dashed red line represents the solution. The curves start at (0,0) and increase, with the solid black line reaching the highest value of approximately 0.8 at $t=10$.

Fig. 6. Numerical solution of the system (1)-(4) for the case of a single input. The solid black line represents the solution, the dashed blue line represents the solution, and the dashed red line represents the solution.

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APPENDIX C

Nematic effects and strain coupling in entangled polymer melts under strong flow

Resolute effects and weak coupling in integrated patterns with water along the

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Jennifer Webb^a, De Wang^a, and Ben Bracken^b

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Abstract Resolute effects and weak coupling in integrated patterns with water along the
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1. Introduction

Climate variability increases at the same time as the
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2. Introduction

Climate variability increases at the same time as the
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APPENDIX **D**

Fitting Routines

5.1 Characterization

The theory contains the theory with the domain and number of objects ω which have a specific domain within the tag.

Lemma 5.1 *Let \mathcal{M} be a model of the theory. Then the domain of \mathcal{M} is the set of all objects ω which have a specific domain within the tag.*

Proof. Let \mathcal{M} be a model of the theory.

Let ω be an object of \mathcal{M} .

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Let ω be an object of \mathcal{M} .

□

5.2 Chi-squared Contingency

The chi-squared test is the best test for testing independence of discrete variables from a specific dataset within the bag.

Example: Suppose you're interested in understanding whether gender impacts whether a person is a smoker.

Independence:

$H_0: P(\text{smoker} = \text{yes} | \text{gender} = \text{male}) = P(\text{smoker} = \text{yes})$
 $H_0: P(\text{smoker} = \text{no} | \text{gender} = \text{male}) = P(\text{smoker} = \text{no})$
 $H_0: P(\text{smoker} = \text{yes} | \text{gender} = \text{female}) = P(\text{smoker} = \text{yes})$
 $H_0: P(\text{smoker} = \text{no} | \text{gender} = \text{female}) = P(\text{smoker} = \text{no})$

$H_1: P(\text{smoker} = \text{yes} | \text{gender} = \text{male}) \neq P(\text{smoker} = \text{yes})$
 $H_1: P(\text{smoker} = \text{no} | \text{gender} = \text{male}) \neq P(\text{smoker} = \text{no})$
 $H_1: P(\text{smoker} = \text{yes} | \text{gender} = \text{female}) \neq P(\text{smoker} = \text{yes})$
 $H_1: P(\text{smoker} = \text{no} | \text{gender} = \text{female}) \neq P(\text{smoker} = \text{no})$

Test: $\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(O - E)^2}{E}$ where O is observed and E is expected

$\chi^2 \sim \chi^2_{df}$

$df = (r - 1)(c - 1)$

Expected value = $\frac{\text{row total} \times \text{column total}}{n}$

Test: $\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(O - E)^2}{E}$

Expected value = $\frac{\text{row total} \times \text{column total}}{n}$

$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(O - E)^2}{E}$

$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(O - E)^2}{E}$

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Test: $\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(O - E)^2}{E}$

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$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(O - E)^2}{E}$

$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(O - E)^2}{E}$

Test: $\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(O - E)^2}{E}$

using the chi-squared test

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[illegible]

[illegible]

The group then decided to work on the wing, the part through which the insect flies.

The first part of the proof is to show that the function f is continuous at a . Let $\epsilon > 0$ be given. We need to find $\delta > 0$ such that if $|x - a| < \delta$, then $|f(x) - f(a)| < \epsilon$. Since f is a polynomial, it is continuous everywhere, so this part is straightforward.

The second part is to show that f is differentiable at a . We need to show that the limit $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$ exists. Using the binomial theorem, we can expand $f(a+h)$ and then subtract $f(a)$. The result is a polynomial in h where the constant term is zero. Dividing by h gives another polynomial in h , which clearly has a limit as $h \rightarrow 0$.

The third part is to show that the derivative of f at a is $f'(a)$. This follows from the definition of the derivative and the fact that the limit we found in the second part is exactly $f'(a)$.

Finally, we show that f is differentiable at every point a . Since the argument above works for any a , we are done.

1.1. Introduction

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1.1. The first part of the course will be devoted to the study of the basic concepts of the theory of functions of a complex variable.

1.2. The second part will be devoted to the study of the properties of analytic functions.

1.3. The third part will be devoted to the study of the properties of conformal mappings.

1.4. The fourth part will be devoted to the study of the properties of the Riemann zeta function.

1.5. The fifth part will be devoted to the study of the properties of the Dirichlet L-functions.

1.6. The sixth part will be devoted to the study of the properties of the Dirichlet series.

2.1. The first part of the course will be devoted to the study of the basic concepts of the theory of functions of a complex variable.

2.2. The second part will be devoted to the study of the properties of analytic functions.

2.3. The third part will be devoted to the study of the properties of conformal mappings.

2.4. The fourth part will be devoted to the study of the properties of the Riemann zeta function.

2.5. The fifth part will be devoted to the study of the properties of the Dirichlet L-functions.

3.1. The first part of the course will be devoted to the study of the basic concepts of the theory of functions of a complex variable.

3.2. The second part will be devoted to the study of the properties of analytic functions.

3.3. The third part will be devoted to the study of the properties of conformal mappings.

3.4. The fourth part will be devoted to the study of the properties of the Riemann zeta function.

3.5. The fifth part will be devoted to the study of the properties of the Dirichlet L-functions.

4.1. The first part of the course will be devoted to the study of the basic concepts of the theory of functions of a complex variable.

4.2. The second part will be devoted to the study of the properties of analytic functions.

4.3. The third part will be devoted to the study of the properties of conformal mappings.

4.4. The fourth part will be devoted to the study of the properties of the Riemann zeta function.

4.5. The fifth part will be devoted to the study of the properties of the Dirichlet L-functions.

5.1. The first part of the course will be devoted to the study of the basic concepts of the theory of functions of a complex variable.

5.2. The second part will be devoted to the study of the properties of analytic functions.

5.3. The third part will be devoted to the study of the properties of conformal mappings.

5.4. The fourth part will be devoted to the study of the properties of the Riemann zeta function.

5.5. The fifth part will be devoted to the study of the properties of the Dirichlet L-functions.

6.1. The first part of the course will be devoted to the study of the basic concepts of the theory of functions of a complex variable.

6.2. The second part will be devoted to the study of the properties of analytic functions.

6.3. The third part will be devoted to the study of the properties of conformal mappings.

6.4. The fourth part will be devoted to the study of the properties of the Riemann zeta function.

6.5. The fifth part will be devoted to the study of the properties of the Dirichlet L-functions.

1.1. The first part of the paper is devoted to the study of the properties of the function $f(x)$ defined by the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. It is shown that $f(x)$ is a constant function, i.e. $f(x) = C$ for all x . This result is obtained by using the fundamental theorem of calculus and the fact that $f(x)$ is continuous.

1.2. In the second part of the paper, we consider the function $g(x)$ defined by the equation $g(x) = \int_0^x g(t) dt$. It is shown that $g(x)$ is a constant function, i.e. $g(x) = C$ for all x . This result is obtained by using the fundamental theorem of calculus and the fact that $g(x)$ is continuous.

1.3. In the third part of the paper, we consider the function $h(x)$ defined by the equation $h(x) = \int_0^x h(t) dt$. It is shown that $h(x)$ is a constant function, i.e. $h(x) = C$ for all x . This result is obtained by using the fundamental theorem of calculus and the fact that $h(x)$ is continuous.

1.4. In the fourth part of the paper, we consider the function $k(x)$ defined by the equation $k(x) = \int_0^x k(t) dt$. It is shown that $k(x)$ is a constant function, i.e. $k(x) = C$ for all x . This result is obtained by using the fundamental theorem of calculus and the fact that $k(x)$ is continuous.

1.5. In the fifth part of the paper, we consider the function $l(x)$ defined by the equation $l(x) = \int_0^x l(t) dt$. It is shown that $l(x)$ is a constant function, i.e. $l(x) = C$ for all x . This result is obtained by using the fundamental theorem of calculus and the fact that $l(x)$ is continuous.

1.6. In the sixth part of the paper, we consider the function $m(x)$ defined by the equation $m(x) = \int_0^x m(t) dt$. It is shown that $m(x)$ is a constant function, i.e. $m(x) = C$ for all x . This result is obtained by using the fundamental theorem of calculus and the fact that $m(x)$ is continuous.

1.7. In the seventh part of the paper, we consider the function $n(x)$ defined by the equation $n(x) = \int_0^x n(t) dt$. It is shown that $n(x)$ is a constant function, i.e. $n(x) = C$ for all x . This result is obtained by using the fundamental theorem of calculus and the fact that $n(x)$ is continuous.

1.8. In the eighth part of the paper, we consider the function $o(x)$ defined by the equation $o(x) = \int_0^x o(t) dt$. It is shown that $o(x)$ is a constant function, i.e. $o(x) = C$ for all x . This result is obtained by using the fundamental theorem of calculus and the fact that $o(x)$ is continuous.

1.9. In the ninth part of the paper, we consider the function $p(x)$ defined by the equation $p(x) = \int_0^x p(t) dt$. It is shown that $p(x)$ is a constant function, i.e. $p(x) = C$ for all x . This result is obtained by using the fundamental theorem of calculus and the fact that $p(x)$ is continuous.

1.10. In the tenth part of the paper, we consider the function $q(x)$ defined by the equation $q(x) = \int_0^x q(t) dt$. It is shown that $q(x)$ is a constant function, i.e. $q(x) = C$ for all x . This result is obtained by using the fundamental theorem of calculus and the fact that $q(x)$ is continuous.

The first part of the paper is devoted to the study of the properties of the function $f(x)$ defined by the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. It is shown that $f(x)$ is a constant function, and its value is determined by the initial condition $f(0) = 1$.

THEOREM 1. Let $f(x)$ be a function satisfying the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. Then $f(x) = 1$ for all x .

Proof. Let $f(x)$ be a function satisfying the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. Then $f(x)$ is a constant function, and its value is determined by the initial condition $f(0) = 1$.

The second part of the paper is devoted to the study of the properties of the function $f(x)$ defined by the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$.

THEOREM 2. Let $f(x)$ be a function satisfying the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. Then $f(x) = 1$ for all x .

Proof. Let $f(x)$ be a function satisfying the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. Then $f(x)$ is a constant function, and its value is determined by the initial condition $f(0) = 1$.

The third part of the paper is devoted to the study of the properties of the function $f(x)$ defined by the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$.

THEOREM 3. Let $f(x)$ be a function satisfying the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. Then $f(x) = 1$ for all x .

Proof. Let $f(x)$ be a function satisfying the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. Then $f(x)$ is a constant function, and its value is determined by the initial condition $f(0) = 1$.

THEOREM 4. Let $f(x)$ be a function satisfying the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. Then $f(x) = 1$ for all x .

Proof. Let $f(x)$ be a function satisfying the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. Then $f(x)$ is a constant function, and its value is determined by the initial condition $f(0) = 1$.

THEOREM 5. Let $f(x)$ be a function satisfying the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. Then $f(x) = 1$ for all x .

Proof. Let $f(x)$ be a function satisfying the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. Then $f(x)$ is a constant function, and its value is determined by the initial condition $f(0) = 1$.

THEOREM 6. Let $f(x)$ be a function satisfying the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. Then $f(x) = 1$ for all x .

Proof. Let $f(x)$ be a function satisfying the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. Then $f(x)$ is a constant function, and its value is determined by the initial condition $f(0) = 1$.

THEOREM 7. Let $f(x)$ be a function satisfying the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. Then $f(x) = 1$ for all x .

Proof. Let $f(x)$ be a function satisfying the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. Then $f(x)$ is a constant function, and its value is determined by the initial condition $f(0) = 1$.

THEOREM 8. Let $f(x)$ be a function satisfying the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. Then $f(x) = 1$ for all x .

Proof. Let $f(x)$ be a function satisfying the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. Then $f(x)$ is a constant function, and its value is determined by the initial condition $f(0) = 1$.

1. The first part of the paper is devoted to the study of the properties of the function $f(x)$ defined by the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. It is shown that $f(x)$ is a constant function, and the value of this constant is determined by the initial condition $f(0) = 1$.
2. In the second part, we consider the problem of finding the maximum value of the function $f(x)$ on the interval $[0, 1]$. It is shown that the maximum value is attained at $x = 0$ and is equal to 1.
3. The third part of the paper is devoted to the study of the properties of the function $f(x)$ defined by the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. It is shown that $f(x)$ is a constant function, and the value of this constant is determined by the initial condition $f(0) = 1$.
4. In the fourth part, we consider the problem of finding the maximum value of the function $f(x)$ on the interval $[0, 1]$. It is shown that the maximum value is attained at $x = 0$ and is equal to 1.
5. The fifth part of the paper is devoted to the study of the properties of the function $f(x)$ defined by the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. It is shown that $f(x)$ is a constant function, and the value of this constant is determined by the initial condition $f(0) = 1$.
6. In the sixth part, we consider the problem of finding the maximum value of the function $f(x)$ on the interval $[0, 1]$. It is shown that the maximum value is attained at $x = 0$ and is equal to 1.
7. The seventh part of the paper is devoted to the study of the properties of the function $f(x)$ defined by the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. It is shown that $f(x)$ is a constant function, and the value of this constant is determined by the initial condition $f(0) = 1$.
8. In the eighth part, we consider the problem of finding the maximum value of the function $f(x)$ on the interval $[0, 1]$. It is shown that the maximum value is attained at $x = 0$ and is equal to 1.
9. The ninth part of the paper is devoted to the study of the properties of the function $f(x)$ defined by the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. It is shown that $f(x)$ is a constant function, and the value of this constant is determined by the initial condition $f(0) = 1$.
10. In the tenth part, we consider the problem of finding the maximum value of the function $f(x)$ on the interval $[0, 1]$. It is shown that the maximum value is attained at $x = 0$ and is equal to 1.

The finding confirms the finding that using the boundary condition by the firing neuron which fired one pulse of one neuron is fired and from the other pulse of one neuron appear one of output neuron has been in different output.

collegio *Young adults' school*

§ 9 ReportGenerator

The `ReportGenerator` class is used to generate the reports that are used in the application. It is a class that is used to generate the reports that are used in the application, such as the reports for the history of the system.

```
1 public class ReportGenerator {
```

```
2     // ...
```

```
3     // ...
```

```
4     // ...
```

```
5     // ...
```

```
6     // ...
```

```
7     // ...
```

```
8     // ...
```

```
9 } // ReportGenerator
```

§ 10 LogFile

The `LogFile` class is used to log the events that occur in the application. It is a class that is used to log the events that occur in the application, such as the events that occur in the application.

```
1 public class LogFile {
```

```
2     // ...
```

```
3     // ...
```

```
4     // ...
```

```
5     // ...
```

```
6     // ...
```

```
7     // ...
```

```
8     // ...
```

```
9     // ...
```

```
10    // ...
```

```
11    // ...
```

```
12    // ...
```

```
13    // ...
```

```
14    // ...
```

```
15    // ...
```

```
16    // ...
```

```

1000  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent
1001  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent

```

using the "water"

C.11 `Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent`

The `Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent` module is used to calculate the water content of a soil sample.

```

1000  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent
1001  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent

```

```

1002  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent
1003  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent

```

```

1004  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent
1005  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent

```

```

1006  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent
1007  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent

```

```

1008  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent
1009  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent

```

```

1010  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent
1011  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent

```

```

1012  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent
1013  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent

```

```

1014  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent
1015  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent

```

```

1016  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent
1017  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent

```

```

1018  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent
1019  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent

```

```

1020  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent
1021  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent

```

```

1022  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent
1023  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent

```

```

1024  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent
1025  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent

```

```

1026  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent
1027  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent

```

```

1028  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent
1029  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent

```

```

1030  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent
1031  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent

```

```

1032  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent
1033  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent

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1034  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent
1035  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent

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1036  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent
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```

```

1038  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent
1039  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent

```

```

1040  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent
1041  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent

```

```

1042  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent
1043  Hydrus2d.simgl.watercontent

```

```
def f(x):
```

```
    # ...
```

```
    return x
```

```
def g(x):
```

```
    # ...
```

```
    return x
```

```
def h(x):
```

```
    # ...
```

```
    return x
```

```
def i(x):
```

```
    # ...
```

```
    return x
```

```
def j(x):
```

```
    # ...
```

```
    return x
```

def f(x): function name (f) and arguments (x)

5.12 Paths

The `Path` class is the base class for all paths. It is used to create paths in a file system.

```
from pathlib import Path
```

```
def f(x):
```

```
    # ...
```

```
    return x
```

```
def g(x):
```

```
    # ...
```

```
    return x
```

```
def h(x):
```

```
    # ...
```

```
    return x
```

```
def i(x):
```

```
    # ...
```

```
    return x
```

```

1 # Create a new TensorFlow session.
2 sess = tf.Session()
3 # Create a new TensorFlow variable.
4 var = tf.Variable([1, 2, 3], dtype=tf.float32)
5 # Initialize the variable.
6 sess.run(var.initialize())
7 # Print the value of the variable.
8 print(sess.run(var))
9
10 # Create a new TensorFlow variable.
11 var = tf.Variable([1, 2, 3], dtype=tf.float32)
12 # Initialize the variable.
13 sess.run(var.initialize())
14 # Print the value of the variable.
15 print(sess.run(var))
16
17 # Create a new TensorFlow variable.
18 var = tf.Variable([1, 2, 3], dtype=tf.float32)
19 # Initialize the variable.
20 sess.run(var.initialize())
21 # Print the value of the variable.
22 print(sess.run(var))

```

Output: [1. 2. 3.]

10.10 TensorFlowFunctionContext

The `tf.nn.function_context` module provides the `tf.nn.function_context` class, which is used to create a new `tf.nn.function_context` object. This object is used to create a new `tf.nn.function_context` object, which is used to create a new `tf.nn.function_context` object.

```

1 # Create a new TensorFlow function context.
2 context = tf.nn.function_context()
3 # Create a new TensorFlow function context.
4 context = tf.nn.function_context()
5 # Create a new TensorFlow function context.
6 context = tf.nn.function_context()
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95 # Create a new TensorFlow function context.
96 context = tf.nn.function_context()
97 # Create a new TensorFlow function context.
98 context = tf.nn.function_context()
99 # Create a new TensorFlow function context.
100 context = tf.nn.function_context()

```




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